DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 252 149 HE 018 009

AUTHOR Baratz, Joan C.; Ficklen, Myra
TITLE Participation of Recent Black College Graduates in the Labor Market and in Graduate Education. Final Report.
INSTITUTION Educational Testing Service, Washington, DC. Div. of Education Policy Research and Services.
SPONS AGENCY Lilly Endowment, Inc., Indianapolis, Ind.
PUB DATE Jun 83
NOTE 95p.
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Black Colleges; *Black Students; *College Graduates; Comparative Analysis; *Employment Experience; *Graduate Study; Graduate Surveys; Higher Education; Labor Market; *Majors (Students)

ABSTRACT

Educational and career pursuits of recent black college graduates were studied. The following issues were explored: the contributions of the traditionally-black institution (TBI) to the number of black college graduates, majors of TBI graduates compared to those of black graduates of predominantly white schools, college costs, black graduates' pursuit of graduate and professional school studies, and the experience of TBI graduates in the labor market. The high school achievement level and ratio of males to females were found to be similar for the two groups of graduates. Black graduates of majority institutions were somewhat older. In general the choice of major for black undergraduates at TBIs was not significantly different from black and white undergraduates at majority institutions. The most likely majors were education, business and management, and social sciences. The full-time participation rate in graduate school was the same for all black graduates. TBI baccalaureates were competitive with other college graduates in the job market. While TBI graduates were paid slightly less and tended to work in government more, overall employment rates and types of jobs were similar for the two groups. Appendices include information on the case of Adams v. Richardson and Title III of the Higher Education Act. (SW)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED252149

Education Policy
Research and
Services Division

Participation of Recent Black College Graduates in the Labor Market and in Graduate Education

Joan C. Baratz
Myra Ficklen

Final Report
Submitted to
The Lilly Endowment, Inc
June 1983

HE 017009

MISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Educational Testing Services
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)
This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

Educational Testing Service
Princeton, NJ 08541

PARTICIPATION OF RECENT BLACK COLLEGE GRADUATES IN THE LABOR MARKET AND IN GRADUATE EDUCATION

Joan C. Baratz
Myra Ficklen

Final Report
Submitted to
The Lilly Endowment, Inc.

Division of Education Policy Research and Services
Educational Testing Service
June 1983

Copyright © 1983. Educational Testing Service. All rights reserved.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Traditionally Black institutions have played an important role in American higher education. Following the Civil War through the mid 1960s traditionally Black colleges and universities (TBIs) represented the mainstay of postsecondary educational opportunities for Black Americans. The vast majority of Black college graduates received their baccalaureates from TBIs.

The push for integrated higher education, most recently propelled by the Adams case, has called into question the role of Black colleges and universities. Critics argue that the institutions are anachronistic, that their faculties are weak and that the advent of desegregated schooling has removed their prime purpose. Proponents counter that integration is still limited and TBIs play an important role, particularly in the South, where they are the chief vehicle for educating Black Americans. Furthermore, in many instances Black colleges and universities educate students who would not have an opportunity for postsecondary study at predominantly white schools. TBIs also represent an important center of Black culture and provide role models for Black students. Nevertheless, as greater numbers and proportions of Black students matriculate at predominantly white institutions, aided by federal financial and judicial support, the role of TBIs becomes an increasingly important and complex policy issue.

To understand the social and educational role of TBIs today, it is important to learn about the places taken by graduates one or two years after graduation. Using a National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) Survey of Recent College Graduates (RCG) from institutions of higher education, and the National Longitudinal Study (NLS) data base, we investigated the role of TBIs by describing the educational, and career niches occupied by recent graduates of those colleges. The study addresses the following issues:

- What are TBIs' contributions to the number of Black college graduates?
- What are the fields of study of TBI graduates? Do they differ from Black graduates of predominantly white schools?
- What are college costs for the two groups?
- Do graduates of TBIs go on to graduate and professional school?
- How do TBI graduates fare in the labor market?

While there were severe limitations to the data -- the numbers are small, they do not address issues of quality and achievement directly, information is based entirely on self report -- there is sufficient evidence to support the important role Black colleges play in enrolling, retaining and graduating students who can compete successfully in the

marketplace and in graduate school. Our review of enrollment and graduation patterns at TBIs indicates their substantial contribution to the production of qualified Black baccalaureate candidates. Their number of Black graduates (40% of all Black baccalaureate recipients) is a greater proportion of the Black college pool than their enrollments would suggest (17% of Black undergraduates).

In examining demographic characteristics, undergraduate experience, graduate school participation and employment patterns of Black graduates of majority institutions and TBI graduates, we found there were not large differences in the two groups, and where differences exist they are subtle and do not appear to influence substantially either participation in graduate school or employment opportunity.

The two groups of graduates were similar in high school achievement level and ratio of males to females. Black graduates of majority institutions were somewhat older, possibly reflecting that it takes Black students longer to complete a degree at a majority institution than at a TBI. We found virtually no difference between the two groups in their performance in undergraduate school, as reflected in self-reported GPAs and opinions about academic performance and ability. Our data suggest that Blacks encounter the same degree of difficulty in academic subjects at TBIs and predominantly white institutions, and that a majority of both groups were satisfied with their academic performance their last year in school.

Our data refute the criticism that TBI curricula are narrow and focus on education to the exclusion of other disciplines, particularly math and science. We found that in general the choice of major for Black undergraduates at TBIs is not significantly different from Black and white undergraduates at majority institutions. The most likely majors were education, business and management and social sciences. While Blacks are generally underrepresented in math and science, students at TBIs enroll in science programs at the same rate as Blacks in majority schools.

Our data reveal some differences in financial aid patterns for the two groups. TBI graduates have a higher level of participation in federal grant programs and in the NDSL program and a lower level of indebtedness at graduation than do Black graduates of predominantly white institutions. This lower level of indebtedness reflects both the lower cost of TBIs and the higher participation rate in federal grant programs.

Our data indicate that Black graduates of TBIs are an important part of the graduate and professional school pool, and that most of them go on to study at predominantly white universities. A large portion of all Black graduates are confident that their undergraduate training equipped them for further study, but TBI graduates are slightly less sure (79% versus 84% for Black majority school graduates). Nonetheless, the full-time participation rate in graduate school was the same for all Black graduates. Part-time attendance was greater for Black graduates of predominantly white colleges than for TBI alumni. Although numbers are very small, our data show no differences in fields of study or degree objectives in graduate school.

We find that TBI baccalaureates are competitive with other college graduates in the job market. A majority of Black college graduates were able to find satisfactory employment which required a college degree and which was related to their field of study. While there were some differences in employment patterns, most notably TBI graduates were paid slightly less and tend to work in government more, overall employment rates and types of jobs were similar for the two groups. Clearly, earning a degree at a Black college is not a deterrent to employment opportunities.

The data in this study clearly support the role of Black colleges and universities in enhancing opportunities for Black Americans.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Introduction	1
Procedures	7
Findings	9
Demographic Variables	9
Sex	9
Age	11
Year of High School Graduation	11
High School Achievement	11
Undergraduate Education	14
Grade Point Average	14
Financing Undergraduate School	16
Undergraduate Field of Study	23
Attitudes Toward Undergraduate Experience	29
Participation in Graduate and Professional Education	34
Professional Education Enrollment	34
Degree Objective	37
Field of Study	38
Achievement in Graduate Study	42
Financing Graduate School	42
Employment	44
Employment Rate	44
Type of Employer	46
Size of Firm	48
Rate of Pay	48
Employment as Teachers	50
Relevance of Education and Training to Job	52
Psychological Affective Outcomes	55
Summary of Findings	58
Conclusion	60
Bibliography	63

TABLE OF CONTENTS continued

APPENDIX A - The Adams Case

APPENDIX B - Title III of the Higher Education Act

APPENDIX C - Explanation of Sampling Procedures

APPENDIX D - Fields of Study

INTRODUCTION

Following the Civil War through the mid 1960s traditionally Black colleges and universities (TBIs) represented the mainstay of postsecondary educational opportunities for Black Americans. The vast majority of Black college graduates received their baccalaureates from TBIs.

These postsecondary institutions, located primarily in the South, are diverse -- public and private, secular and church related, small and large, two year colleges to graduate and professional schools -- but they share a common purpose, the education of Black Americans. In many instances they also share a common set of problems -- too little money and students with great educational needs.

Although some TBIs have long and illustrious histories -- Howard, Fisk and Hampton, to name a few -- many were begun in the Twentieth Century and were still developing institutions in the 1950s when the Supreme Court declared segregated schooling to be unconstitutional.

The push for integrated higher education, most recently propelled by the Adams case,[1] has called into question the role of Black colleges and universities.[2] Their survival has become a significant social and educational issue.[3] Some critics[4] have argued that such institutions are

---

[1]See Appendix A for a discussion of the case, Adams v. Richardson.

[2]Carrol L. Miller, "Higher Education for Black Americans: Problems and Issues," Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 50, No. 3 (1982).

[3]W. H. Turner and J. A. Michael, "Traditionally Black Institutions of Higher Education: Their Identification and Selected Characteristics," USDHEW, National Center for Education Statistics (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978).

[4]Kenneth B. Clark, "Higher Education for Negroes: Challenges and Prospects," Journal of Negro Education, 36 (Summer 1967), pp. 196-203.

anachronistic; that their curricula offerings are narrow, that their faculties are weak[1] and that the advent of desegregated schooling has removed their prime purpose.[2] These critics believe that in an era of limited funds and declining enrollments maintaining institutions of questionable academic quality is unjustifiable.

Proponents of TBIs counter that integration is more rhetoric than reality[3] and that especially in the South TBIs are still the chief vehicle for educating Black Americans.[4] Black colleges, it is asserted, in many instances educate students who would not have an opportunity for post-secondary study at predominantly white schools. Furthermore, proponents argue, TBIs have a justification beyond the numbers they presently enroll. In the words of Willie and Hedgepeth, they provide a "moral dimension of education" not understood by whites but vital to the Black culture and perspective.[5] Tollett succinctly summed up the defense for Black colleges when he said they provide:

---

[1]Christopher Jencks and David Reisman, The Academic Revolution (Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1968)

[2]Michael Meyers, cited in Charles V. Willie, "Black Colleges Redefined," Change (October 1979), p. 46.

[3]National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, Still A Lifeline: The Status of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (Washington, D.C.: NACBHE, June 1980).

[4]William and Marian Brazziel, "Recent College and University Enrollment Patterns of Black Students in States Affected by Adams-Califano Litigation," (Executive Summary of Research Completed Under a Grant from the Southern Regional Education Foundation, 1980) p. 6.

[5]Charles V. Willie and Chester M. Hedgepeth, Jr., "Educational Goals of Black Colleges," Journal of Higher Education, Vol. 50, No. 1., (1979), p. 90.

- "credible models for aspiring Blacks to emulate;
- psycho-social congenial settings in which Blacks can develop;
- transitional enclaves... from comparative isolation to mainstream without demeaning competition or distraction of the majority white group;
- insurance against a potentially declining interest in the education of Black folks, and
- economic and political resources for their surrounding communities."[1]

Finally the NACBHE stressed the role TBIs play as "bastions of Black culture and thought."[2] They point out that such institutions

> represent the few formal structures which nurture and stress racial ideology, pride and worth for Blacks... they are what every racial and ethnic group is entitled to have -- a political, social and intellectual haven. Had segregation not existed to create a demand for Black colleges, their appearance would have still been warranted.[3]

Nonetheless, as greater numbers and proportions of Black students matriculate at predominantly white institutions[4] aided by federal financial and judicial support, the role of TBIs has become an increasingly important policy issue.[5] Debate surrounding the Adams Case[6] and Title III of the

---

[1]Kenneth Tollett, "Black Institutions of Higher Learning: Inadvertent Victims or Necessary Sacrifices?" The Black Law Journal, III (1974), pp. 65-66.

[2]National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, Black Colleges and Universities: An Essential Component of a Diverse System of Higher Education (Washington, D.C.: NACBHE, September 1979).

[3]Ibid, p. 13.

[4]G. E. Thomas, J. M. McPortland and D.C. Gottredson, "Desegregation and Black Student Higher Educational Access" in Thomas, G.E. (ed.), Black Students in Higher Education: Conditions and Experiences in the 1970s (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood, 1981), pp. 336-56.

[5]National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, Still a Lifeline: The Status of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (Washington, D.C.: NACBHE, June 1980).

[6]Leonard Haynes III, A Critical Examination of the Adams Case: A Source Book (Washington, D.C.: Institute for Services to Education, 1978).

Higher Education Act (Support for Developing Institutions)[1] only serves to heighten this controversy.

Several recent developments contribute to the uncertainty of the place these colleges hold in higher education:

- Funding for entitlement programs and other forms of student financial assistance has become scarce and uncertain, threatening collegiate matriculation and completion for all low-income students, especially Blacks. The United Negro Fund reported a 4% drop in enrollment in member institutions in 1982 that was attributed to changes in Pell Grants.

- Funding available for Title III program support has not increased appreciably since 1978, despite the rise in college costs. Appropriations from FY 1978 through 1981 remained level at $120 million. A 12% increase in FY 1982 did not permit program expansion, but merely allowed inclusion of the challenge grant program and specified set-asides. Appropriations for FY 1983 are $129.6 million, although a $5 million supplemental currently under consideration would bring the total funding to a level even with FY 1982. The amount requested for FY 1984 is $129.6 million. This level of funding will provide $9.6 million in challenge grants, and $120 million for program support, the same level of funding available in FY 1978.

- Judicial relief from discrimination seems less certain, and the attendant climate of support for minority programs appears less accepting than it once was.

To understand the social and educational role of TBIs today, it is important to learn about the places taken by graduates of these institutions one to two years after graduation. While the literature is replete with claims for and against the value of Black colleges, little hard data are available to validate these assertion. One charge frequently leveled against TBIs is that they not only admit students with academic skills unacceptable to other institutions of higher learning but often graduate such students without assuring their acquisition of sufficient skills for survival in the market place and in postgraduate settings. We found only two studies that

---

[1]See Appendix B for a discussion of the issues surrounding Title III and TBIs.

examined this issue. In one, Anderson and Hrabowski[1] analyzed the performance in graduate school of Black graduates from Black undergraduate institutions as compared with Black graduates of predominantly white colleges and universities. They found no differences in graduate grade point average between the two groups. Furthermore, their study indicated that TBI graduates were a major source of the Black doctorate pool.

In the second study, Johnson[2] examined the post-baccalaureate employment and training of Black students who had graduated from TBIs or predominantly white institutions in Alabama. Among other things, she found that TBI graduates were more likely to earn GPAs of A or B than were Black students of predominantly white schools, and that TBI graduates were more likely to find a job through campus recruitment while Blacks on white campuses were more likely to depend on information from fellow students for job placement. Graduation from a predominantly white school was found to be the best predictor for continuing education, while GPA was the best predictor of occupational status of first job.

Using a National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) Survey of Recent College Graduates (RCG) from institutions of higher education, and

---

[1]Ernest F. Anderson and Freeman A. Hrabowski, "Graduate School Success of Black Students from White Colleges and Black Colleges," Journal of Higher Education, Vol. XLVIII, No. 3 (May/June, 1977), pp. 294-303.

[2]Rhoda B. Johnson, "Factors Related to the Postbaccalaureate Careers of Selected Four-Year Institutions in Alabama" (Atlanta, Georgia: Southern Education Foundation, May 1982). Xerox copy.

National Longitudinal Study (NLS) data base,[1] this study investigates the role of TBIs by describing the educational, occupational and career niches occupied by recent graduates of those colleges. We address the following issues:

- What are TBIs' contributions to the number of Black college graduates?
- What are the fields of study of TBI graduates? Do they differ from Black graduates of predominantly white schools?
- What are college costs for the two groups?
- Do graduates of TBIs go on to graduate and professional school? Are they academically prepared?
- How do TBI graduates fare in the labor market?

---

[1]The NCES survey of Baccalaureate and Masters degree recipients from the 1976-1977 academic year oversampled TBIs, and therefore, permits a statistically sound comparison of graduates from TBIs and predominantly white colleges and universities. That survey permits a statistical portrait of the participation of recent TBI graduates in the American workforce, and enables us to compare their opportunities and restrictions with those of both Black and white graduates of predominantly white colleges and universities. We supplemented the NCES recent college graduate (RCG) data with information from the NCES National Longitudinal Study (NLS). That survey provides additional data on employment and graduate and professional school enrollment of Black baccalaureate recipients.

PROCEDURES

Our primary data base consists of a 1978 NCES survey of individuals who received bachelor's or master's degrees from July 1, 1976 to June 30, 1977. This survey of recent college graduates (RCG) was conducted in Spring 1978, with answers given according to respondents' situation as of February 1978. The purpose of the survey was to estimate the number of graduates eligible to teach, so the survey oversampled education majors, although the data are representative of graduates in all fields.[1]

Table 1 describes the RCG data used in this study. We have excluded from our analysis white graduates of Black institutions because the number is small (71) and when disaggregated into the categories for analysis, cell size becomes small or is zero. Furthermore, that group is not a focus of our study. We divided the data into three categories for comparison: white graduates of predominantly white institutions (WW); Black graduates of predominantly white institutions (BW); and Black graduates of traditionally Black institutions (TBI).

To create a category of predominantly white (or majority) institutions comparable to TBIs, we controlled for size, dividing the predominantly white institutions into large (enrollments over 10,000) and small. Since there were no TBIs with enrollments over 10,000, the category of small white institutions was comparable in size to the TBIs. In our analyses, we found no differences between large and small institutions, so we collapsed the data into one category of predominantly white institutions.

---

[1]See Appendix C for a description of the NCES sampling procedures.

TABLE 1

STUDENT DISTRIBUTION BY RACE AND PREDOMINANT RACE OF INSTITUTION

	Predominant Race of Institution		
	White	Black	Total
Race of Student			
White	6644	71	6715 (91%)
Black	306	343	649 (9%)
Total	6950	414	7364

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

The expected date of graduation for this sample was spring 1977; students graduating in 1976 would have earned degrees during the summer or fall of the 1976-77 academic year. Approximately 68% of our sample graduated in 1977. At the time of the survey (February 1978), all the students had been out of school at least eight months; some had been out 14 to 20 months. Graduates were divided into two groups: those graduating in 1976 and those graduating in 1977. In most instances, we found no differences, so we combined the two groups. With some questions regarding employment, where time in the labor force was important, we maintained the separate categories for 1976 and 1977 graduates.

Because the total sample of Black college graduates was small, we supplemented our study with additional analyses of data on Black college graduates identified in the third and fourth follow-ups of the NCES National Longitudinal Study. The NLS surveyed 1972 high school seniors Concerning their educational experiences as well as, opinions, attitudes

and plans for the future. Four major follow-ups with surveys on education and employment have been conducted in academic years 1973-74, 1974-75, 1976-77 and 1979-80.[1]

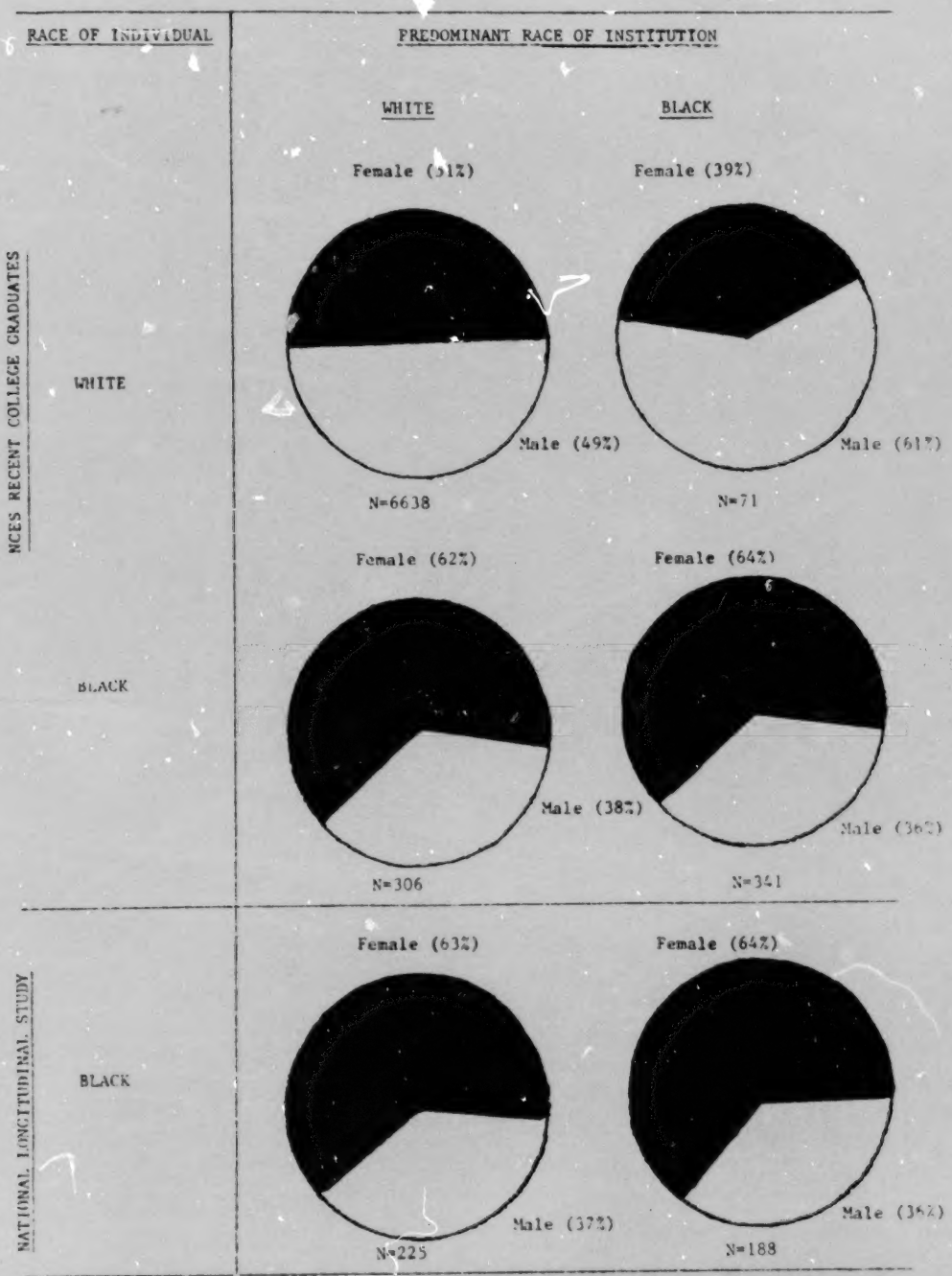
This second data base contains 413 Black students who had obtained a baccalaureate degree by October 1979: 225 Black graduates of predominantly white institutions; and, 188 TBI graduates. This sample is approximately the same age as the majority of the NCES respondents in the survey of 1976-77 college graduates. Although the number in the NLS sample is small, it does provide an opportunity to look for convergent evidence for hypotheses emerging from the NCES/RCG analysis. Additionally, information regarding attitudes and satisfaction towards education and employment provides richer descriptions of affective outcomes of education not included in the NCES Survey of Recent College Graduates.

---

[1]See Appendix C for more detail on the National Longitudinal Study and sampling procedures.

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY SEX



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978. National Longitudinal Study, Fourth Follow-up, 1979-80.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

FINDINGS

First we compared the graduates across a number of demographic variables: sex; age; year of high school graduation; and high school achievement. Next we examined undergraduate careers: achievement; funding; field of study; satisfaction; and finally, we looked at graduate and professional study and job histories.

Demographic Variables

Sex

Table 2 presents the distribution of our sample by sex within each institutional type. There is a higher percentage of females than males among our Black graduates (56% versus 44%). Nonetheless, the proportions of Black male and female graduates are similar for predominantly white and traditionally Black institutions.[1]

Age

The RCG data indicate that at majority institutions the average age of white graduates at the time of the survey is 27, whereas his/her Black counterpart is 30. At TBIs the average age of graduates is 28. Thus, there is little difference in age among our three groups, although Black graduates of majority institutions are on average two years older than TBI graduates.

---

[1] TBI enrollment by sex parallels national Black enrollment trends, but differs from the overall national trend. In 1978, women comprised 56.8% of Black enrollments in TBIs vs. 57% for women among all Black students in higher education. Nationally women comprised 49.3% of total higher education enrollment. (National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, op. cit., June 1980, p. 11).

If "traditional" student is defined as the 18 to 22 year old, the expected age of "traditional" students at graduation would be from 21 to 23. The average age of graduates in our sample is slightly older than the expected age. This is consistent with the general trend of larger numbers of older students and students often taking longer than four or five years to finish school, thus raising the average age at graduation.

Year of High School Graduation

The year of high school graduation provides another indicator of the proportion of traditional versus older student in each category.[1] We assume that "traditional" students graduate from college within five years of high school graduation. We also calculated the proportion of students in each category who finished high school six to eight years prior to college graduation. These graduates may have waited longer to start college, matriculated as part-time students, or interrupted their college career for some reason. The last category includes the older, nontraditional student, who graduated from high school more than eight years prior to college graduation. Many of these students probably did not enter college immediately after high school graduation.

[1]The NLS sample graduated from high school in 1972. Eckland and Henderson (1981) found that only 39% of all students in the NLS sample who entered college on schedule in 1972 were graduated by 1976; and 30% of Black undergraduate students in the sample had graduated. (Cited in, "Black Retention In Higher Education," Office of Civil Rights, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1981).

A smaller percentage of Black graduates of predominantly white institutions (40%) graduated from college within five years of high school graduation than did TBI graduates (56%) or white graduates (55%). Six to eight years after high school graduation, approximately 70% of Blacks at TBIs and whites at predominately white institutions have received a bachelor's degree, but only 56% of Blacks at white institutions did so. (Table 3) This finding is consistent with the slightly higher average age of Black graduates at predominantly white institutions.

The NLS information supports the recent college survey data concerning the apparent supportive role of TBIs in assisting students to complete college within eight years of high school graduation. Those data reveal that 56% of the Black students who enrolled in TBIs graduated from them by October 1979, but only 45% of the Black 1972 high school students who had enrolled in predominantly white schools had graduated by that time.

The important role of TBIs in retaining and graduating their students can be seen when data on enrollment and baccalaureate receipt are examined.[1] Although in fall 1978, TBIs accounted for only 17% of Black students enrolled in higher education,[2] they granted 37% (21,966) of all baccalaureate degrees awarded to Blacks.[3]

---

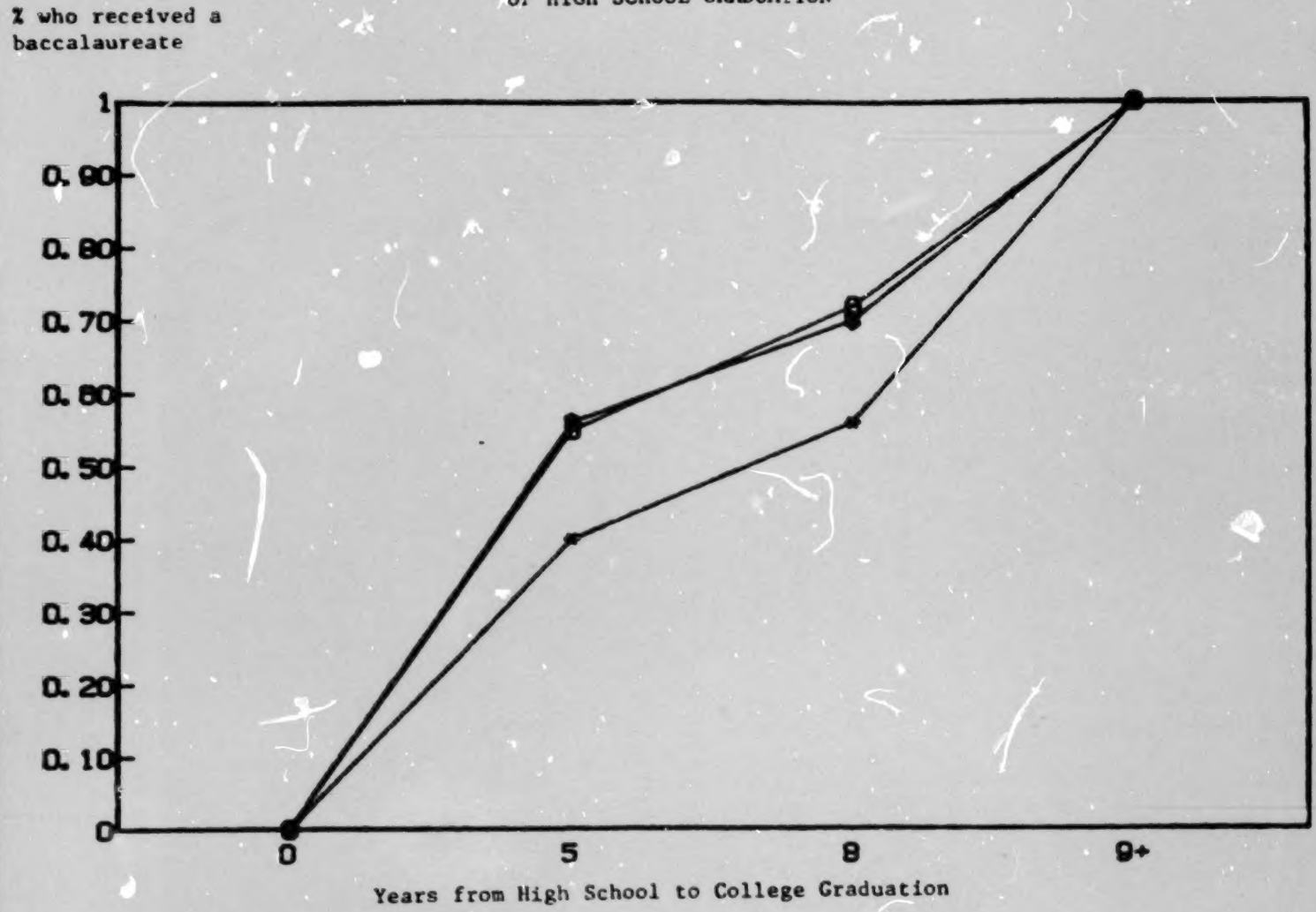
[1]Of the 3119 Black high school graduates, 27% enrolled in four year colleges; 16% at predominantly white; 11% at TBIs. By October 1979 only 13% of the Black high school graduates had received the baccalaureate degree: 7% were from predominantly white schools; 6% from TBIs.

[2]National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, op. cit., June 1980, p. 12.

[3]Ibid., p. 20.

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY YEAR OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION



Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

High School Achievement

One possible explanation for the difference in graduation rates of Blacks from TBIs as compared to Blacks from predominantly white institutions might be that less academic skill is required for TBI graduation. Our data appear to refute this notion. Although the NCES data did not contain any indicator of high school achievement, the NLS data include a composite score reflecting academic performance. We conducted a t-test and found no significant differences in high school achievement levels between Black graduates of TBIs and their Black counterparts from predominantly white institutions.[1]

Undergraduate Education

Our data also provide information on several aspects of undergraduate education. We examined the data for differences in grade point average, financial aid, and field of study -- factors we felt might influence decisions to go on to graduate school as well as affect employment options.

Grade Point Average

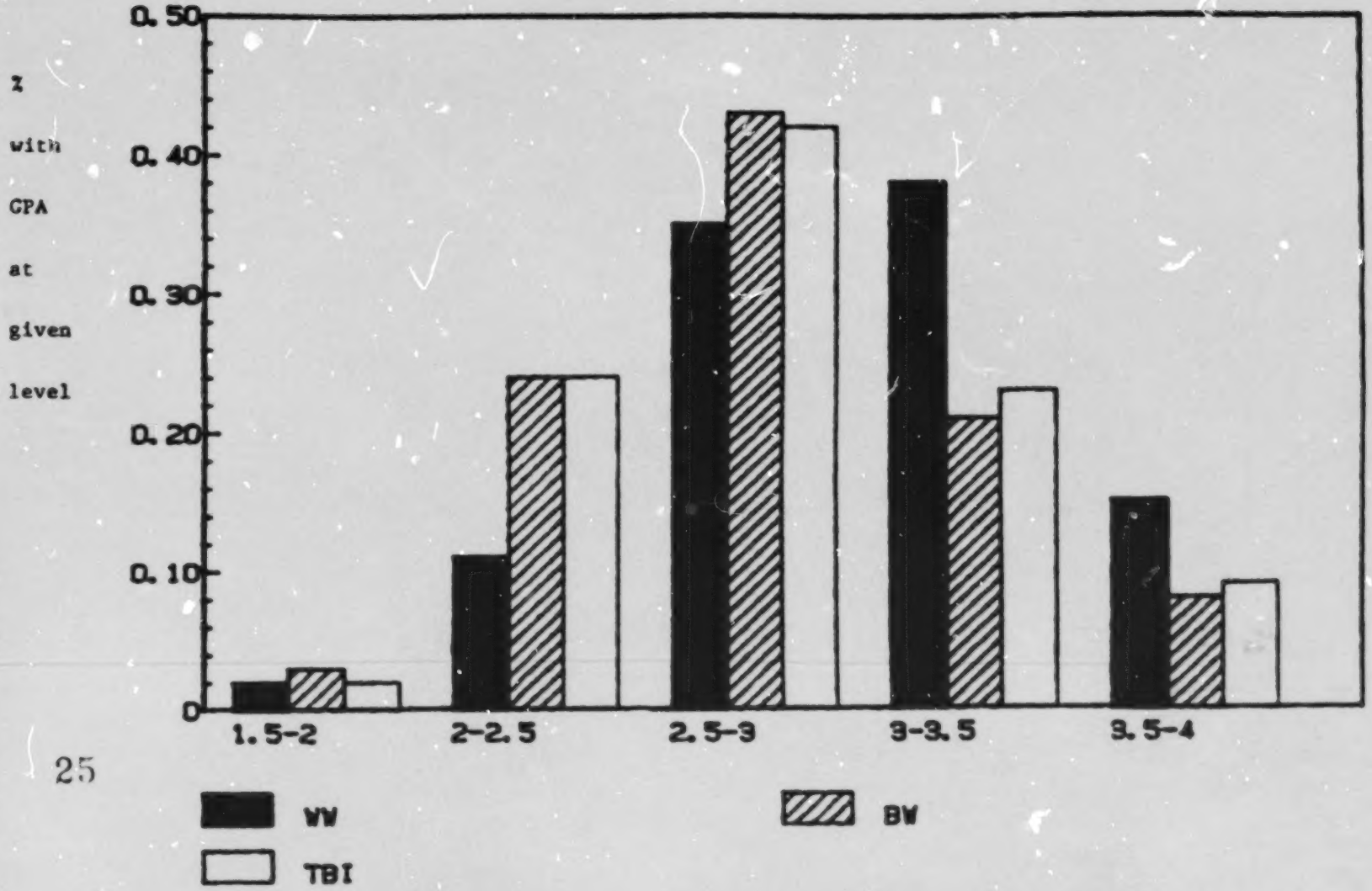
A student's grade point average is one measure of academic performance and, therefore, an indicator of academic success. Furthermore, GPA is important when competing for admission to graduate school. Table 4 shows the distribution of self-reported GPAs for our RCG sample.[2] The data suggest it is not easier to get high grades at TBIs. Black graduates from TBIs do not report higher grades than Black students from predominantly

---

[1] For more detail on the statistical procedures used see Appendix A.

[2] Johnson, op. cit., found Black students graduating from predominantly white institutions in Alabama had lower GPAs than did Blacks graduating from TBIs. Anderson and Hrabowski op. cit., found GPAs of Black graduates of TBIs were equally reliable predictors of graduate school performance as were GPAs of Black graduates of white institutions.

TABLE 4
SELF-REPORTED UNDERGRADUATE GPA
OF RECENT COLLEGE GRADUATES



white institutions. Furthermore, the NLS data show no differences in reported difficulty with curriculum of Blacks attending TBIs compared to their counterparts in predominantly white institutions.

While the distribution of GPAs is similar for Black graduates of predominantly white institutions and TBI graduates, both groups report generally lower GPAs than white graduates. The largest portion of Black graduates report GPAs between 2.51 and 3.0; the largest portion of white graduates, indicate GPAs between 3.01 and 3.5. Approximately 32% of TBI graduates report GPAs of 3.01 or better versus 29% for Black graduates of predominantly white institutions.

Financing Undergraduate Education

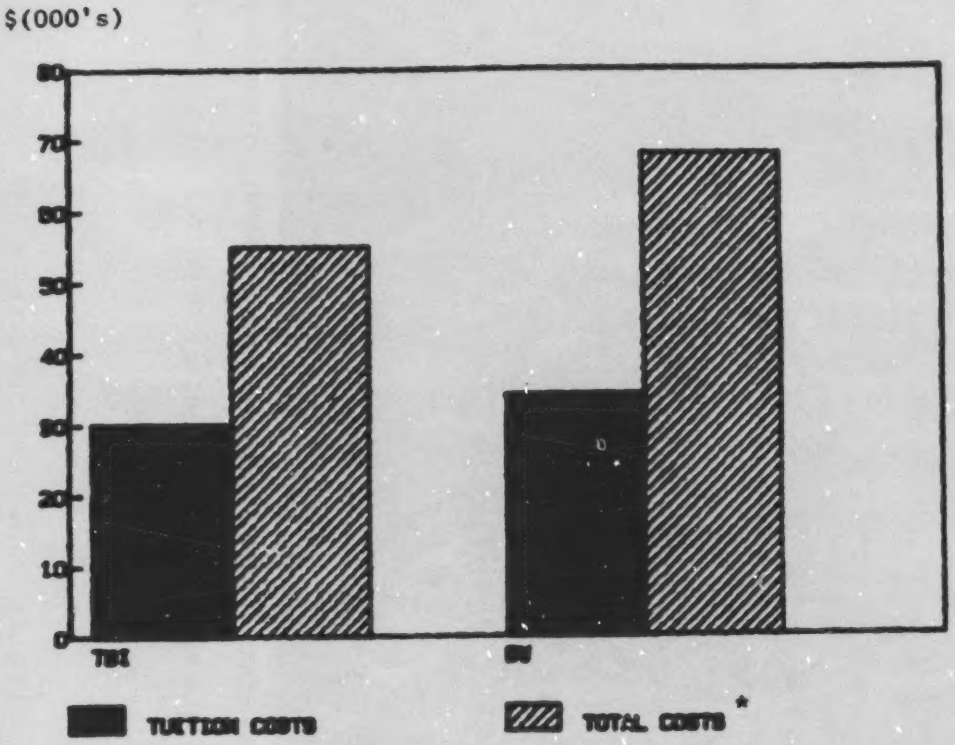
Financial barriers are often cited as a major factor limiting access to postsecondary education. Expanding financial aid to lower income students helps to equalize costs. Furthermore, the lower tuition usually charged by TBIs may make these institutions more accessible to lower income students.

Costs. The NLS data indicate that total costs per year for undergraduate school is substantially lower for TBI graduates ($5000) than for Black graduates of majority institutions ($6800), although mean tuition costs for the two groups are similar, $3000 for TBI and $3400 for Black graduates at majority institutions. Table 5 compares the cost for the two groups.

Indebtedness. We examined our data on indebtedness at graduation, types of aid received and participation in the major federal need-based financial aid programs to determine what differences, if any, exist in terms of financial aid for students. The recent college graduate survey indicates that Black graduates are much more likely to receive loans than white graduates. Approximately 25% of white graduates received loans

TABLE 5

COMPARISON OF TUITION AND
TOTAL COSTS FOR TBI GRADUATES AND
BLACK GRADUATES OF MAJORITY INSTITUTIONS



*Significant at the .05 level

Source: National Longitudinal Study, Third and Fourth Follow-up, 1976-77 and 1979-80.

versus 42% of Black graduates of majority institutions and 41% of TBI graduates.[1]

Table 6 shows that of graduates who incur debt while in undergraduate school, white graduates have the highest level of debt, while TBI graduates have the lowest. Individuals at white institutions have approximately the same average debt regardless of race, which is about $600 more than at predominantly Black institutions. This may be a reflection of different levels of cost and/or different amounts of other aid available. The distributions are skewed more for Black graduates at white institutions than for white graduates, indicating that a substantial number of Black students at white institutions borrow only a small amount, whereas others borrow heavily.

TABLE 6

AMOUNT OWED AT BANK AT UNDERGRADUATE GRADUATION

	WW	BW	TBI
Mean	$2600	$2500	$1900
Median	1900	800	1300
Standard Deviation	(2300)	(2200)	(1700)
N =	2115	157	180

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

[1]Throughout this section, to find the proportion within each group receiving a particular kind of aid, we divided the number within our category receiving that type of aid by the total sample within that category (WW=6644, BW=306, TBI=343,) rather than the total responses, since the categories are not mutually exclusive, and many graduates received more than one kind of aid.

As with the recent college graduate data, the NLS survey reveals a greater average indebtedness for Black graduates of majority institutions ($2300) than for Black graduates of TBIs ($1700). The NLS data indicate, however, that Black graduates of TBIs are somewhat less likely to borrow money to go to school. Approximately 52% of TBI graduates borrowed money compared to 60% of Black graduates of majority institutions. One explanation for this may be the higher participation rate of TBI graduates in grant and work study programs; another might be the lower cost of attending TBIs.

Loans. The largest need-based loan program in the RCG 1976-77 survey was the National Direct Student Loan program (NDSL). Black graduates overall were much more likely than white graduates (10%) to have received NDSLs, but there is only a slight difference between TBI graduates (21%) and Black graduates of majority institutions (26%). This difference in white and Black participation in NDSL may indicate that white students are more likely to borrow from banks, relatives and other sources. It may also reflect a higher income level for white students.

Grant Programs. The largest categories of financial aid other than loans are Federal Work/Study, Pell Grants (formerly Basic Education Opportunity Grants BEOG)[1] and Supplemental Education Opportunity Grants (SEOG). These are need-based federally funded financial aid programs. Table 7 shows the percentage of students within each category participating in: federal financial aid programs; all other aid programs; and those receiving no financial aid.

---

[1]The program name changed in the 1980 Higher Education Amendments. Our terminology uses current name, although the RCG survey asked students whether they participated in the BEOG program.

TABLE 7

TYPE OF FINANCIAL AID IN LAST YEAR OF UNDERGRADUATE SCHOOL

Type of Aid	Percent of Category Receiving Aid		
	WW	BW	TBI
Fed. Work/Study	7%	16%	25%
Pell	8	23	42
SEOG	2	11	12
All Other Aid Excluding Loans	41	44	40
No Aid Reported	62	46	37
N =	(6644)	(306)	(343)

Percentages do not add to 100% because programs are not mutually exclusive.

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

White students (62%) and Black students at predominantly white institutions (46%) are less likely to report financial aid than students at TBIs (37%). Of students receiving aid, Black graduates are much more likely than whites to participate in the three federal need-based financial aid programs. Additionally, TBI graduates show substantially higher participation rates in the federal work/study and Pell Grant program than Black graduates of predominantly white institutions. Approximately 42% of TBI graduates received Pell grants versus 23% for Black graduates of predominantly white institutions and 8% of white graduates. A somewhat

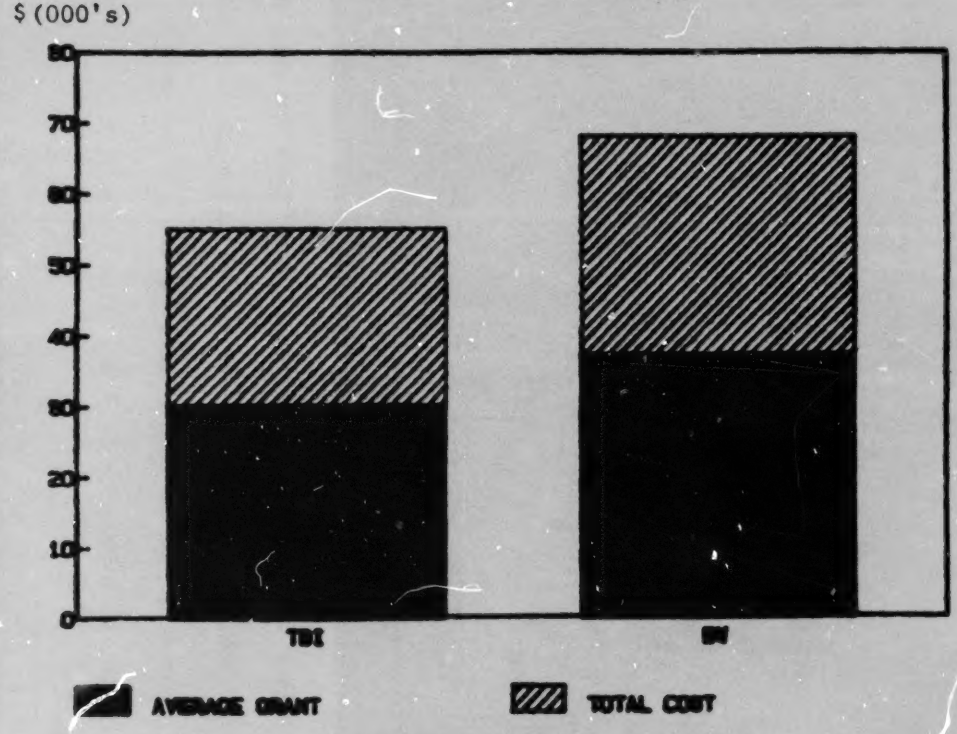
higher proportion of Black graduates of white institutions reported "other aid" than did TBI graduates or white graduates. (Table 7).

The NLS data show that 73% of Black graduates of majority institutions received a grant and 67% of TBI graduates did so. Black graduates of majority institutions received larger grants: $3700 versus $3000 for TBI graduates. While Black graduates of majority institutions have larger grants than TBI graduates, this differential is consistent with the higher costs at majority institutions. It is interesting to note that the amount of the average grant for both groups covers approximately 54% of the total costs of college. (Table 8)

The RCG data provide information on the proportion of graduates receiving aid other than loans. Black graduates are more likely than white graduates (38%) to receive financial aid and TBI graduates (63%) are more likely than Black graduates of majority institutions (54%) to receive such aid. The larger proportion of TBI graduates receiving financial aid compared to graduates of predominantly white institutions probably is an important factor in the lower level of debt at graduation.

TABLE 8

COMPARISON OF GRANT/TOTAL COST
AT TBIs AND MAJORITY INSTITUTIONS



COST OF UNDERGRADUATE COLLEGE PER YEAR
VERSUS AVERAGE GRANT 1974-75 TO 1978-79

Source: National Longitudinal Study, Third and Fourth Follow-up, 1976-77 and 1979-80.

Undergraduate Field of Study

Because field of study in undergraduate school is often an important determinant of career choice for graduates, we examined our data for patterns in undergraduate majors. We find the fields of study for the RCG sample to be roughly consistent with the national trend (Table 9). The three most prevalent fields for bachelor's degrees in 1974 and 1978[1] nationally were education, business and management and social sciences -- the three most prevalent fields in the RCG sample. Since numbers of Black graduates in each field are small, comparisons with the national distribution are tenuous at best. The proportion of education majors in our sample is much greater than the national distribution,[2] while the proportion of humanities and social science majors is less than the national proportion. In engineering, biological and physical sciences, the sample approaches the national distribution.

We compared the majors of graduates to determine if TBI graduates differ from Black graduates of majority institutions in their choices. Until the late 1970s, the curriculum of many TBIs focused on education and liberal arts majors, with less emphasis on technical and career oriented programs,[3] so we looked for differences between majors chosen by TBI graduates compared with Black graduates of majority institutions.

---

[1]National Center for Education Statistics, The Condition of Education (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1980), p. 130. Only selected years are given, so we used 1974 and 1978 for comparison.

[2]The oversampling of education majors was part of the NCES design since the purpose of the survey was to determine the supply of teachers.

[3]National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, Black Colleges and Universities: An Essential Component of a Diverse System of Higher Education (Washington, D.C.: NACBHE, September 1979).

TABLE 9

DISTRIBUTION OF BACHELOR'S DEGREES BY FIELD OF STUDY
COMPARISON OF SAMPLE WITH NATIONAL DISTRIBUTION

	Percentage of Bachelor's Degrees		
	National Sample		
Field[a]	1974[b]	1978[b]	NCES/RCG Sample[c]
Education	20%	15%	34%
Humanities	16	14	10
Social Science	16	13	9
Business & Manag.	11	13	14
Psychology	6	5	4
Engineering	5	6	4
Biological Science	5	6	5
Health Professions	4	6	6
Physical Science	2	3	2
All Other Fields	12	14	12

[a]See Appendix D for an explanation of the fields.

[b]National Center for Education Statistics, The Condition of Education (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1980), p. 130.

[c]National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978. Education majors were deliberately oversampled in this survey.

As Table 10 shows, education was the most likely major for all groups, followed by business and management. The proportion of TBI graduates and Black graduates of predominantly white institutions in most fields is similar; however, TBI graduates are much more likely to major in business and management and somewhat less likely to major in education, humanities and psychology than are Black graduates of predominantly white institutions. Overall, Blacks are more heavily enrolled in education, social sciences, and business and less heavily enrolled in science and engineering, humanities and health than white graduates. Black and white graduates have about equal enrollment in mathematics and other majors. This is an unusual finding given the recognized underrepresentation of Blacks in science and mathematics[1] and may represent the sampling bias of the RCG survey.

---

[1]Graduate Record Examination Board, Minority Participation in Graduate Education (Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, March 1983). Unpublished draft report prepared for Minority Research Subcommittee of the Graduate Record Examination Board.

TABLE 10

FIELD OF STUDY FOR UNDERGRADUATE DEGREE

Field	Percentage of Majors			Differences Between Blacks and Whites	
	WW	BW	TBI	BW-WW	TBI-WW
Education[a]	34%	42%	36%	8%	2%
Social Science	17	20	19	3	2
Business	14	13	22	-1	8
Science and Engineering	12	7	8	-5	-4
Humanities	11	9	6	-2	-5
Health	6	4	4	-2	-2
Mathematics	2	2	2	0	0
Other	4	4	4	0	0
TOTAL[b]	100%	100%	100%		
N =	(6626)	(302)	(342)		

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

[a]This oversampling of education majors was part of the survey design, since the focus of the survey was on the supply of teachers.

[b]Totals may not add to 100% due to rounding.

The distribution of majors in the NLS sample is similar to the NCES/RCG survey. (Table 11) The most frequent majors are education, business and management, and social sciences. TBI graduates are somewhat more likely to major in education or business and management than are Black graduates of predominantly white institutions, and less likely to be in social sciences, but differences are not significant. This sample shows very small representation of Black graduates in the sciences, with no difference between TBI graduates and Black graduates of majority institutions.

TABLE 11

PROPORTION OF BLACKS PURSUING
UNDERGRADUATE FIELD OF STUDY

Major Field	Type of Institution	
	TBI	BW
Education	27%	19%
Business and Management	18	13
Social Sciences	14	18
Public Affairs and Service	6	4
Health Professions	4	9
Psychology	4	5
Sciences:		
Biological Sciences	4	4
Physical Sciences	4	5
Engineering	2	2
Mathematics	0	0
All Other Fields	17	21
N=	104% (188)	100% (225)

Source: National Longitudinal Study, Fourth Follow-up, 1979-80.

Because minorities have traditionally been underrepresented in the sciences, we examined the participation of our sample in scientific areas. Table 12 provides a more detailed listing of science and engineering majors. Although the number of majors in most scientific fields is very small, we can still discern some differences between TBI graduates and Black graduates of majority institutions. TBI graduates are more likely than Black graduates of majority institutions to major in biological sciences. We are particularly interested in biological sciences majors, since that category includes premedical education majors.[1] By contrast, TBI graduates are less likely than their counterparts at predominantly white institutions to major in engineering.

TABLE 12

DISTRIBUTION OF SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING MAJORS

Field of Study	Percentage Majoring in Field		
	WW	BW	TBI
Biological Sciences	5%	2%	6%
Engineering	4	3	1
Physical Sciences	2	1	1
	N = (6626)	(302)	(342)

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

[1] In 1980, 7 Black colleges -- Fisk, Hampton, Howard, Morehouse, Oakland, Spelman and Xavier -- contributed 13.4% of the students in the total Black applicant pool.

Attitudes Toward Undergraduate Experience

Academic Experience. Black graduates of majority institutions and TBI graduates express few differences in their opinions about their academic experience during the last year of school. Over 70% of both groups found the course work interesting, said they learned a great deal and met people with new ideas; however, a slightly larger proportion of TBI graduates indicated they performed well academically and learned a great deal.

TABLE 13

EXPERIENCE LAST YEAR IN SCHOOL

	Percentage of group agreeing with statement	
	BW	TBI
Performed Well Academically*	76%	81%
Found the Coursework Interesting	78%	78%
Met people with New Ideas	73%	72%
Learned a Great Deal*	76%	80%
N=	(225)	(188)

*Significant at .05 level

Source: National Longitudinal Study, Fourth Follow-up, 1979-80.

Similarly, there is no difference between the two groups in the level of difficulty experienced in the course work. Approximately 17% of TBI graduates found the coursework more difficult than expected, compared with 13% of Black graduates of majority institutions, a small difference that is not statistically significant.

Both groups are comparable in their lack of problems encountered in the last year of school, but Black graduates of majority institutions are more likely than TBI graduates to indicate employment related problems. This may mean more Blacks attending predominantly white schools work than do Blacks at TBIs or it may mean that working causes greater problems for Blacks at majority institutions.

TABLE 14

CAUSED A PROBLEM LAST YEAR IN SCHOOL

	Percentage of Group Indicating Problem	
	BW	TBI
Working full-time*	13%	5%
Working part-time*	17	8
Pressure with workload	12	11
School program not relevant to work I wanted to do	5	4
I was failing or not doing as well as I wanted	8	5
N=	(225)	(188)

*Significant at .05 level

Source: National Longitudinal Study, Fourth Follow-up, 1979-80.

Taken together, these findings indicate a high level of interest and good academic performance and suggest that the last year of school is a positive experience for a large majority of Black students at both predominantly white institutions and TBIs. There is little difference in attitudes between the two groups.

Satisfaction with College Environment. Data from the NLS third follow-up provide us with the level of student satisfaction on a number of

variables related to college environment. Table 15 reveals that a majority of both groups of Black students express satisfaction with environmental factors (such as intellectual life of school, teachers' knowledge). Furthermore, both groups express similar levels of satisfaction with personal intellectual growth and development of work skills.

Our data show no difference between the groups in their levels of satisfaction with teachers' abilities, quality of instruction, course curriculum or intellectual life of the school. A large majority of both groups are satisfied. One area where there is a difference is satisfaction with the physical facilities of the institution. A larger proportion of Black graduates of majority institutions are satisfied with the buildings, library and equipment than are TBI graduates.

TABLE 15

SATISFACTION WITH ACADEMIC QUALITY
OF UNDERGRADUATE INSTITUTION

	Percentage of Group Satisfied	
	BW	TBI
Ability and Knowledge of Teachers	73%	68%
Intellectual Life of the School	62	65
Course Curriculum	68	69
Quality of Instruction	66	64
Buildings, Library, Equipment*	75	57
Development of Work Skills	71	74
Intellectual Growth	79	76
N=	188	225

*Significant at .05 level

Source: National Longitudinal Study, Third Follow-up, 1976-77.

Social Life. Involvement in the life and environment of the institution is an important contributor to college retention.[1] We were, therefore, interested in determining if any differences exist between TBIs and majority institutions that might affect student involvement with campus life. The data (Table 16) provide information on the level of satisfaction with social life, sports and recreation facilities, and cultural activities which can be used as indirect measures of involvement in campus life. As might be anticipated, TBI graduates are more satisfied with the social life at their institutions: approximately 65% are satisfied or very satisfied with the social life compared with 55% of Black graduates of majority institutions. There is little difference between the two groups in their satisfaction with sports or cultural activities. Very few students express dissatisfaction.

TABLE 16

SATISFACTION WITH EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

	Proportion of Group Satisfied	
	BW	TBI
Social Life*	55%	65%
Sports and Recreation Facilities	57	56
Cultural Activities**	56	59
N =	(225)	(188)

*Significant at .05 level
**Significant at .10 level

Source: National Longitudinal Survey, Fourth Follow-up, 1979-80.

[1]Alexander Astin, Preventing Students from Dropping Out (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1975), p.148.

Looking at the three indicators in Table 16, we can conclude that TBI graduates are somewhat more satisfied with the social environment of their institutions than are Black graduates of majority institutions. This may contribute to the higher graduation rates of TBIs noted earlier.[1]

Attitudes Toward Further Education and Self-Concept. Another important set of outcomes from undergraduate education concerns attitudes about further education and self-concept. These are often classified as psychological affective outcomes (Astin, 1973).[2] Our data provide information closely related to those outcomes: interest in further education and confidence in ability to pursue further education.

Again we find there is virtually no difference between the two groups of Black graduates in either their aspiration for further education or their confidence. Eighty-three percent of Black graduates of majority institutions say they have an interest in pursuing further education versus 77% of TBI baccalaureates. This small difference is consistent with the finding that a larger percentage of TBI graduates (31%) than Black graduates of majority institutions (23%) believe their job prospects are good without further education.

A large proportion of graduates in both groups express confidence in pursuing further education. This finding is consistent with the generally positive assessment of academic performance found earlier. Although a slightly smaller proportion of TBI graduates believe their background and ability are good enough to pursue further education, the difference is not statistically significant. (Table 17)

---

[1]The social support structure of TBIs has been cited in the literature as contributing to retention of students.

[2]Alexander Astin, "Measurement and Determinants of the Outputs of Higher Education," in Does College Matter?, ed. by L.C. Solomon and P.J. Taubman (New York: Academic Press, 1973), p.112.

TABLE 17

CONFIDENCE IN PURSUING FURTHER EDUCATION

	Percentage Agreeing with Statement	
	BW	TBI
My background is good enough for me to attempt further education	84%	79%
I think I have the ability to succeed at further education	84%	78%
I am interested in pursuing further education	83%	77%
N=	(225)	(188)

Source: National Longitudinal Survey, Fourth Follow-up, 1979-80.

Participation in Graduate and Professional Education

A major focus of this study was to determine if there are differences between TBI graduates and Black graduates of majority institutions in their patterns of graduate education. The Survey of Recent College Graduates provides information on the rate of graduate/professional school participation and the types of programs graduates enter.[1]

Enrollment

In fall 1978, Blacks were 5.7% of total graduate enrollment. Among full-time graduate students, the proportion was 5%.[2] Of the respondents

[1]This suvey shows which students enter graduate/professional school shortly after college graduation. Some students may enter later.

[2]National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, A Losing Battle: The Decline in Black Participation in Graduate and Professional Education (Washington, D.C.: NACBHE, October 1980), p.6.

TABLE 18

BLACK PARTICIPATION IN GRADUATE SCHOOL

	Percentage of Blacks	
	National Distribution[a]	NCES Survey[b]
Full-time	5%	7%
Part-time	7	9
TOTAL	6	8
		N = (124)

[a]Source: National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, A Losing Battle: The Decline in Black Participation in Graduate and Professional Education (Washington, D.C.: NACBHE, October 1980), p. 6.

[b]Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

in our RCG sample pursuing graduate study, Blacks comprise 8% of all graduate students and 7% of the full-time graduate students. Thus, Black graduate students are somewhat overrepresented in our sample compared to the proportion nationally.

We examined the RCG data for differences in the proportion of students enrolled in graduate school among the three groups of graduates (Table 19). While Black graduates of TBIs are the least likely to be enrolled in graduate school, they are as likely as Black graduates of majority institutions to be enrolled as full-time graduate students.[1] The proportion of Black graduates of majority institutions enrolled in graduate study is

[1]NLS data indicate that, as of October 1979, 22% of the Black baccalaureates of both TBIs and predominantly white institutions were enrolled in graduate school. In that sample, 11% of the TBI graduates attended part-time compared to 9% for Black graduates of majority institutions.

comparable to the proportion of whites, although whites are more likely to be enrolled full time.

TABLE 19

GRADUATE/PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL PARTICIPATION OF RESPONDENTS

	Percent of Graduates Enrolled in Graduate and Professional School		
	WW	BW	TBI
Full-time	12 %	10 %	10 %
Part-time	9	12	7
Total Percentage enrolled	21	22	17
N =	(6635)	(306)	(343)

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

Our NLS data provide information on the graduate school attended. There are 127 students in our sample who attended graduate school at some time from November 1976 to October 1979 and who listed the name of their undergraduate and graduate institutions. Table 20 displays a cross tabulation of the number of students by type of undergraduate and graduate institution.

Graduates of TBIs are nearly ten times as likely as Black graduates of predominantly white institutions to enroll in a TBI graduate school. Only three (4%) of the 78 Black graduates of predominantly white institutions attended TBI graduate or professional schools, while 19 (39%) of TBI graduates enrolled in TBIs graduate or professional schools. The majority of both groups, however, are enrolled in predominantly white graduate schools.

TABLE 20

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN GRADUATE AND PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL
11/76 - 10/79 BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION

Undergraduate School	Graduate School		
	Pred. White	TBI	Total
Predominantly White	75 (96%)	3 (4%)	78 (100%)
TBI	30 (61%)	19 (39%)	49 (100%)
Total	105 (83%)	22 (17%)	127 (100%)

Source: National Longitudinal Survey, Fourth Follow-Up, 1979-80.

Degree Objective

Because our subsample size for each degree controlling for race and predominant race of institution is so small, it is difficult to generalize from these data. It appears, however, that Black graduate students are more likely than whites to pursue an M.A. and less likely to pursue a Ph.D. TBI graduates are the most likely to be pursuing an M.A. degree and the least likely to be pursuing a Ph.D. The largest number of Black law students are TBI graduates, as are the only three Black medical students in our sample. TBI graduates enrolled in school are more likely to be pursuing some degree than are graduates in the other two categories, while Black graduates of predominantly white institutions are more likely to be pursuing a degree other than an M.A., Ph.D., law or medical degree. (Table 21)

TABLE 21

PERCENTAGE OF GRADUATES ENROLLED IN GRADUATE AND PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL WORKING TOWARD A DEGREE

Graduate/Professional Degree Objective	Percent Pursuing Degree		
	WW	BW	TBI
M.A.	48%	56%	61%
Ph.D.	11	6	5
Law	8	3	7
MD	4	0	5
Other	12	21	14
None	18	14	7
N =	(1384)	(63)	(56)

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

Field of Study

Table 22 compares the fields of graduate study for the RCG sample with the overall national distribution, based on data compiled by the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities. There are major constraints in data comparability. For example, data on M.A.'s were not available for 1979, so we used 1976-1977. Fields of study for Ph.D. recipients were available only in selected areas, which did not correspond to the categories listed for M.A., so we have included only data on M.A. recipients. One should also keep in mind that the RCG sample represents individuals enrolled in a degree program, while the overall national figures represent degree recipients.

TABLE 22

PROPORTION OF DEGREES AWARDED TO BLACKS BY FIELD OF STUDY VERSUS PROPORTION OF BLACKS IN SAMPLE PURSUING DEGREE

Field	Black % of Total M.A. 1976-77[a]	Black % of Sample Pursuing Degree[b] (n)
Education	10%	16% (45)
Public Affairs	10	9 (5)
Psychology	6	2 (1)
Area Studies	6	0
Other Social Sciences	6	9 (6)
Architecture & Environmental Studies	5	11 (1)
Health Professions	5	8 (13)
Business and Management	4	6 (8)
Mathematics	4	13 (1)
Biological Sciences	3	7 (3)
Physical Sciences	2	0
Law	2	5 (6)

[a]National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, A Losing Battle: The Decline in Graduate and Professional Education (Washington, D.C.: NACBHE, October 1980), pp. 29 and 34.

[b]National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

The fields of study with the largest number of Black graduate students in our RCG sample are: business and management (8), education (45), health professions (13), law (6), and other social sciences (6). Compared to the national distribution for Blacks in those fields, Blacks in the RCG sample are somewhat overrepresented; but, our sample is somewhat underrepresented in public affairs and psychology.

Blacks in the RCG sample are also poorly represented in the sciences and engineering, although the proportion of Blacks represented in graduate study in biological sciences and engineering is greater than the proportion nationally. There are no Blacks pursuing graduate study in physical sciences in the RCG survey data.

Thus, the Survey of Recent College Graduates sample does not appear to be seriously biased in the proportion of Blacks pursuing advanced degrees in particular fields, although there are some deviations from the national averages. But, because the number of Blacks in each field is small, one must be cautious in generalizing from these data.

Table 23 presents the distribution for the scientific fields and for fields of study with the largest representation in the NCES recent college graduates sample by race and predominant race of undergraduate institution.

The most prevalent field for graduate study is education.[1] Blacks are more likely than whites to be in education, and Blacks from majority institutions are more likely to be in education than TBI graduates. TBI graduates are more likely than any other group to be studying health professions. The category of health professions includes a wide range of professions, from medical and dental specialties to allied health, nursing, and clinical social work. White graduates are the most likely to be studying business and management and TBI graduates the least likely.

---

[1]The NLS data corroborate findings in the NCES/RCG data. There is no difference in field of study for the two groups. Education is the most likely major followed by social sciences. TBI graduates are somewhat more likely to be in arts and humanities and less likely to be in a professional school than are Black graduate students from predominantly white institutions. There are few graduate students in science or engineering and the division between TBI graduates and graduates of predominantly white institutions is similar. There is one engineering student from each type of school; one physical science or math major from a TBI and one biological science major from a majority institution.

TABLE 23

FIELDS OF GRADUATE STUDY BY RACE OF INDIVIDUAL AND PREDOMINANT RACE OF INSTITUTION

	Percentage Pursuing Degree		
Field of Study	WW	BW	TBI
Education	22 %	54 %	31 %
Health Professions	14	7	18
Business/Management	11	9	6
Law	10	4	8
Psychology	5	2	0
Public Affairs	5	4	6
Other Social Sciences	5	4	8
Sciences			
Engineering	4	2	0
Biological Sciences	4	0	6
Physical Sciences	3	0	0
Computer and Information Sciences	1	0	0
Mathematics	1	0	2
All Other Fields	16	15	16
N=	(1,104)	(54)	(51)

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

are more likely to major in business at the undergraduate level, they have a lower participation rate in graduate programs in business. In law, public affairs and other social science areas, TBI graduates have a higher participation rate than Black graduates of majority institutions, but the numbers are very small.

Only five Black graduate students are studying science or engineering in our sample, three in biological sciences, one in mathematics, and one in engineering. All except the student studying engineering are TBI graduates.

Achievement in Graduate Study

We were interested in how the two groups of students performed in graduate school. Our data do not provide overall GPAs for graduate students, but the NLS data give the number of students who had GPAs within a particular range (3.75-4.0; 3.25-3.74, etc.) from November 1978-October 1979. We obtained an estimated mean by multiplying the frequency times the mid-point. The mean GPA for Black graduates of majority institutions is 3.2 versus 3.0 for TBI graduates. A t-test revealed this small difference is not statistically significant.

Financing Graduate School

Financial barriers often contribute to low participation of minorities in graduate education. We examined our sample to determine what differences, if any, exist among the groups of graduates in terms of financial aid for graduate school.

Table 24 indicates a higher percentage of TBI graduates are receiving some form of financial aid for graduate school than either white graduates or Black graduates of majority institutions. TBI graduates are the most likely to receive assistantships, but slightly less likely than Black graduates of majority institutions to receive a college grant (subsample size is small).

TABLE 24

PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RECEIVING FINANCIAL AID FOR GRADUATE SCHOOL

Type of Aid	Percentage of Group Receiving Aid[a]		
	WW	BW	TBI
Assistantship	13	5	14
Relatives	10	8	4
College Grant	10	18	16
Federally Insured Student Loan	7	5	2
Other Aid	30	54	43
No Aid	51	49	43
Some Aid	49	51	57
N=	(1,384)	(63)	(56)

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

[a]Totals will not add to 100% because students could receive more than one type of aid.

Employment

A second focus of this study was to examine career patterns between graduates of traditionally Black institutions and Black graduates of majority institutions. We were particularly interested in determining if there are differences in employment rates, salary levels, and type of employer. Because date of graduation is likely to affect length of time in the labor market, in analyzing the RCG data we separated 1976 and 1977 graduates where we believed this could make a difference.

Employment Rate

Most of our RCG sample were employed as of February 2, 1978 and there is little difference in employment rates (over 85%) among the groups. (Table 25) The overall lower participation rate of TBI graduates in graduate school is not reflected in a higher employment rate, possibly because the proportion of TBI graduates who are full-time graduate students is comparable to the proportion of Black graduates of white institutions, and only slightly less than white graduates. There is some variation in employment rates between the 1976 and 1977 graduates -- 1976 degree recipients were slightly more likely to be employed. This may simply reflect the time lag between graduation and securing employment.

TABLE 25

PROPORTION OF SAMPLE EMPLOYED
AS OF FEBRUARY 12, 1978

	Percentage Employed for Pay		
Year Graduation	WW	BW	TBI
1976	88	90	89
1977	85	82	85

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

The NLS data corroborate the RCG findings. Approximately 77% of Black graduates of majority institutions were working versus 71% of TBI graduates, a small, but not statistically significant difference. In the NLS sample, approximately 40% of Black graduates of majority institutions and 32% of TBI graduates attended school during the period November 1978 through October 1979, and we can assume that some portion of these students were not in the labor force by choice. Ninety-five percent of graduates of predominantly white institutions and 89% of TBI graduates had held a job since leaving high school.[1]

[1]Because we are interested in differences in employment patterns between the two groups of graduates, we used the total sample size (TBI=188; BW=225) as our denominators. Questions regarding employment satisfaction, type of work and reasons for taking a job refer to the most recent job held. Since nearly the entire sample has held a job since leaving high school, differences between the total sample and those who have held a job are trivial.

Type of Employer

Table 26 shows the proportion of graduates within each category by type of employer. The single largest employer for all groups (excluding individuals employed as teachers) is private profit-making firms, but TBI graduates are much less likely than graduates in the other two categories to be employed in private industry. Black graduates are more likely than whites to be employed by federal, state, or local government, and TBI graduates are the most likely to be so employed. Forty-eight percent of TBI graduates work in government, compared to 33% of Black graduates of majority institutions and 24% of white graduates.

TABLE 26

DISTRIBUTION OF GRADUATES BY TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT

Type of Employer	Percentage Employed					
	WW		BW		TBI	
Private Profit-making	57%		51%		42%	
Private Non-profit	15		12		8	
Self-Employed	3		3		1	
Federal Government	4		9		16	
State Government	12	24	12	33	19	48
Local Government	8		12		13	
Other	1		1		1	
TOTAL	(3793)	100%	(157)	100%	(152)	100%

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

The job categories in the NLS survey do not correspond to those in the NCES Survey of Recent College Graduates, since teaching is treated separately by RCG. Nonetheless, the NLS data show many similarities with the NCES data in type of employment -- TBI graduates are less likely to be employed by the private sector.

Unlike our finding with the RCG data, however, the NLS data reveal that TBI graduates are not more likely to be employed by government. (Table 27) But here the government category includes public school teachers, thus preventing us from comparing the data sets. Any differences in public sector employment may be confounded by differences in the proportion of teachers in the group.

More than one-third of both groups of Black baccalaureate recipients are employed by government, a somewhat higher proportion than the 26% of total Bachelor degree holders in the NLS sample employed by the public sector.[1]

TABLE 27

TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT

Employer	Percent Employed	
	BW	TBI
Private sector	51%	46%
Government (including public schools)	37	35
Self-employed	1	1
Without pay for family firm	0	0
Other/Not employed	12	19
N =	(225)	(188)

Source: National Longitudinal Study, Fourth Follow-up, 1979-80.

[1] Graham J. Burkheimer and Thomas P. Novak, A Capsule Description of Young Adults Seven and One-Half Years After High School, Prepared for U. S. Department of Education National Center for Education Statistics (Research Triangle Park, N.C.: Center for Educational Research and Evaluation, August 1981), p. 20.

Size of Firm

The RCG data indicate that Black graduates employed by private enterprise work at larger firms than white graduates. The average size firm for TBI graduates is slightly larger (3800 employees) than for Black graduates of predominantly white institutions (3300 employees) and considerably larger than for white graduates (2600 employees).

Rate of Pay

The RCG survey provides information on the mean salary of the graduates. We separated the graduates by date of graduation, since those graduating in 1976 would have been in the labor market longer, a factor that might affect their salary level.

Table 28 shows that the average salary is higher for earlier graduates (1976), although for Black graduates of predominantly white institutions, the difference between average salary of 1976 and 1977 graduates is very small. TBI graduates have the lowest average salary in both years, while Black graduates of majority institutions have the highest.[1] T-tests reveal that the mean salary level for TBI graduates is significantly lower (at the .05 level) than the mean salary for graduates in the other two groups.

---

[1]Findings in the NLS data are somewhat different. TBI graduates show average weekly earnings of $226 ($11,773 annual rate) versus $229 ($11,895 annual rate) for Black graduates of majority institutions. This is consistent with the rate of pay for graduates in the NCES/RCG survey, although we do not find a difference between TBI graduates and Black graduates of majority institutions in the NLS survey.

TABLE 28

MEAN YEARLY SALARY OF GRADUATES

Year of Graduation	WW	BW	TBI
1976	$12,174	$12,862	$10,930
1977	10,871	12,183	9,757

*Significant at .05 level

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

Although there are more Black females than males in our sample (see Table 2), the proportion of Black female graduates is similar at predominantly white institutions and TBIs, therefore sex probably is not a contributing factor in the lower mean salary of TBI graduates. Additionally TBI graduates work as many hours as graduates in the other two groups. For employed 1976 graduates, 94% of TBI graduates work 35 hours or more compared to 90% of Black graduates of white institutions and white graduates. For the 1977 class, 88% of TBI graduates work 35 hours or more compared to 87% and 84% respectively.

A contributing factor in the lower mean salary of TBI graduates may be the larger proportion of TBI graduates employed by government and the smaller proportion in private profit-making firms. Based on the College Placement Council's survey of job offers made to recent college graduates, starting salaries for government positions were substantially lower than in private for-profit firms. (Table 29) Many other factors, including regional variation, could also account for the lower average salary of TBI graduates.

TABLE 29

AVERAGE YEARLY SALARY OFFERS MADE TO RECENT COLLEGE GRADUATES

	1976-77	1977-78
Business	$ 11,600	$ 12,300
Manufacturing/Industry	12,200	12,800
Federal Government	10,400	11,100
State and Local Government	10,300	11,700

Source: College Placement Council, CPC Salary Survey (Bethlehem, PA: College Placement Council), July 1977 and July 1978.

Employment as Teachers

Traditionally Black institutions have been the primary source of Black elementary and secondary school teachers. We were, therefore, interested in determining if there are differences between TBI graduates and Black graduates of majority institutions in the proportion trained and employed as teachers. This is a particularly important question in light of the declining opportunities available for college graduates in the last decade. The RCG survey provides information on the proportion of the graduates employed as teachers in their principal job.

Overall, a larger proportion of Black graduates than white graduates are employed as teachers and TBI graduates are the most likely to be employed as teachers (Table 30). Because of the expected time lag in finding a teaching position, we separated graduates by year of graduation and found that a larger proportion of 1976 graduates than 1977 graduates held teaching positions.

TABLE 30

PROPORTION OF GRADUATES EMPLOYED AS TEACHERS

Were You Employed As A Teacher on February 12, 1982?

	WW		BW		TBI	
	1976	1977	1976	1977	1976	1977
Yes	36%	28%	45%	31%	55%	36%
No	64	72	55	69	45	64
N =	(1839)	(3862)	(135)	(128)	(83)	(199)

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

Comparing the proportion within each category employed as teachers, we find that for 1976 graduates, TBI graduates are more likely than any other group to be employed as teachers, even though there is a higher proportion of education majors among Black graduates of majority institutions. The proportion of 1976 TBI graduates employed as teachers (55%) is greater than the proportion who majored in education (44%), indicating that some in this group majored in another academic discipline and also took the education courses required to teach.

Of the 1977 graduates, a slightly higher proportion of TBI graduates are employed as teachers than are Black graduates of majority institutions, but the differences are not as great as in 1977. (The proportions of each group majoring in education are more similar in 1977.)

From the data it appears that a larger proportion of Black graduates than whites are employed as teachers, and TBI graduates are slightly more likely to be employed as teachers than Black graduates of predominantly

white institutions, despite the lower percentage of education majors among TBI graduates.

Relevance of Education and Training to Job

Our RCG data also provide information about the usefulness of past education and training for employment. There is little difference among groups of graduates on the indicators surveyed. In the NLS data, a large portion of Black graduates in both groups believe their undergraduate education is useful in their job and made a difference in their employment opportunities. TBI graduates are more likely than Black graduates of majority institutions to indicate that coursework is helpful in their job. Only a few graduates believe they could have obtained their job without their education and training and only 23% of each group indicate they would have liked more job related training. (Table 31)

TABLE 31

USEFULNESS OF EDUCATION IN JOB

Statement Regarding Training	Percentage Agreeing With Statement	
	BW	TBI
Coursework and training helpful in job*	54%	59%
Use most of what learned in school	49	46
Would have liked more job-related training	24	23
Could have got job without training	57	25
Going to school to get training was a wise choice	53	48
N =	(225)	(188)

*Significant at .05 level.

Source: National Longitudinal Study, Fourth Follow-up, 1979-80.

Table 32 indicates that at least two-thirds of the respondents in the Survey of Recent College Graduates were holding jobs requiring a college degree. Differences among the three groups appear trivial.

TABLE 32

PROPORTION HOLDING JOB REQUIRING COLLEGE DEGREE
IS COLLEGE DEGREE REQUIRED FOR PRINCIPAL JOB?

	Percentage Responding		
	WW	BW	TBI
Yes	68%	67%	68%
No	30	32	31
Don't know	2	1	1
N =	(5593)	(260)	(274)

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978.

As Table 33 indicates, the most frequent reason given for taking a job not requiring a college degree is inability to find a job requiring one. The percentage of TBI graduates giving this response is larger than the other groups indicating some possible difficulty in the job market with a TBI degree. Additionally, a larger proportion of TBI graduates than graduates in the other two categories indicate the job not requiring a college degree was the only job they could find in their field, although the proportion of Black graduates of majority institutions giving this response is only slightly smaller. A substantially larger proportion of white graduates indicate that they prefer the job not requiring a college degree as compared to Black graduates.

From these data we conclude that there is little difference between TBI graduates and Black graduates of majority institutions in regard to their undergraduate education and the job held at the time of the NLS survey. A majority of graduates in every group are employed in positions that they characterize as requiring a college degree and closely related to their field of study.

TABLE 33

REASONS FOR TAKING JOB NOT REQUIRING A COLLEGE DEGREE

Reason[a]	Percentage Giving Reason		
	WW	BW	TBI
Earn money while going to school	16%	20%	10%
Only job in my field	10	13	16
Could not find job requiring degree	17	29	35
Prefer this job	17	7	6
Too difficult, so didn't look	2	0	0
Had this job while going to school and liked it	11	12	8
Prefer to work in family firm	4	1	1
None of the above	34	35	31
Number underemployed	(1664)	(84)	(84)

Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Survey of Recent College Graduates, 1978

[a]Respondents could give multiple responses to this question. In order to calculate the proportion of each group giving a particular response, we divided the number of responses by the number indicating a college degree was not required for the job (see Table 32). Percents will not add to 100%.

Psychological Affective Outcomes

Employment satisfaction, job attitudes and career aspirations are also important psychological affective outcomes expected from a college education.[1] In order to examine if TBIs have different effects on Black graduates than majority institutions, we used the NLS data to compare Black graduates of majority institutions with TBI graduates across a number of indicators reflecting job satisfaction and attitudes about employment and ability.

First we examined the data to see if there were differences between the two groups concerning their ability to find satisfactory employment. A large percentage of both groups are able to find a job they want that is consistent with their training. As Table 34 indicates, about 40% of TBI graduates and Black graduates of majority institutions give job security as an important reason for taking a job. Furthermore, TBI graduates are more likely to give pay as a reason for taking the job -- 36% of TBI graduates give pay as a reason versus 30% of Black graduates of majority institutions. Consistent with the finding in the NCES/RCG data, TBI graduates are somewhat more likely to say they took a job because it was the only job they could find. Nonetheless, very few repondents in either category indicate they lack sufficient training to get the kind of job they want.

---

[1] Astin, "Measurement and Determinants of the Outputs of Higher Education," op. cit., pp. 111-114.

TABLE 34

REASON FOR TAKING JOB

Reason for Taking Job	Percentage Giving Reason	
	BW	TBI
Kind of Job I was trained for	49%	44%
Kind of job I was looking for	54	47
Kind of work I always wanted to do	41	32
Could not get kind of job for which I was trained	19	23
Best paying job I could find*	30	36
Job offered security	40	41
Only job I could find*	15	21
Did not have training to get the kind of job I wanted	11	6
N =	(225)	188)

*Significant at the .05 level.

Source: National Longitudinal Study, Fourth Follow-up, 1979-80.

NLS respondents also show similar overall high levels of satisfaction with pay, fringe benefits, and working conditions and there is little difference between the two groups. (Table 35) Most graduates indicate that they are satisfied with the opportunity to use past training and education. This finding is consistent with the RCG survey data which show graduates in both groups very likely to hold jobs requiring a college degree and related to their field of study. There is a small but statistically significant difference between the two groups, however, in their satisfaction with opportunity for advancement in their current or most recent line of work. TBI graduates are less likely to be satisfied

than are Black graduates of majority institutions. A large percentage, 70% of Black graduates of majority institutions and 65% of TBI graduates, are satisfied with the job as a whole.

Generally, our data show no difference in job satisfaction between TBI graduates and Black graduates of majority institutions. Most respondents are satisfied with their current employment.

TABLE 35

JOB SATISFACTION

Job Characteristic	Percentage Satisfied	
	BW	TBI
Pay	62%	59%
Fringe benefits	68	60
Working conditions	68	63
Opportunity for promotion and advancement with employer	57	46
Opportunity for advancement with this line of work**	60	48
Opportunity to use past training and education	62	57
Importance and challenge*	66	61
Security and permanance	64	63
Opportunity to develop new skills	69	63
Job as a whole	70	65
N =	(225)	(188)

* Significant at .05 level
**Significant at .10 level

Source: National Longitudinal Study, Fourth Follow-up, 1979-80.

Summary of Findings

Our study examined demographic characteristics, undergraduate experience, graduate school participation and employment patterns of Black graduates of majority institutions and TBI graduates. Overall we found there were not large differences in the two groups, and where differences exist they are subtle and do not appear to influence substantially either participation in graduate school or employment opportunity.

Our two groups of graduates were similar in high school achievement level and the ratio of males to females. Black graduates of majority institutions were somewhat older, possibly reflecting that it takes Black students longer to complete a degree at a majority institution than at a TBI.

We found virtually no difference between the two groups in their performance in undergraduate school, as reflected in reported GPAs and opinions about academic performance and ability. Courses of study were similar for the two groups, with education, business and management and social sciences the most likely majors. While numbers are small, our findings do corroborate the underrepresentation of Blacks in the sciences.

Our data reveal differences in financial aid patterns for the two groups. TBI graduates have a higher level of participation in federal grant programs and in the NDSL program and a lower level of indebtedness at graduation than do Black graduates of predominantly white institutions.

A majority of both groups believe they will need further education, but only 17% of TBI graduates and 22% of Black graduates of majority institutions had attended graduate school at the time of the survey. The proportion of the two groups attending graduate school full-time is similar.

Although numbers are small, our data show no differences in fields of study or degree objectives in graduate school.

There were a few differences in employment patterns of the two groups. TBI graduates were more likely to be employed by government and less likely to be employed by the private sector than were graduates of predominantly white institutions. One important finding was the fact that TBI graduates had a lower average salary and were more concerned with their lack of opportunity for advancement in their job. Nevertheless, a majority of Black graduates reported being employed in satisfying jobs requiring a college degree and related to their field of study.

CONCLUSION

What is the significance of the findings from our analysis? What do the data tell us about an education from a Black college? How can the information here inform the debate concerning the survival of TBIs?

While there are severe limitations to the data -- the numbers are small, they do not address issues of quality and achievement directly, information is based entirely on self report -- there is sufficient evidence to support the critical role Black colleges play in enrolling, retaining and graduating students who can compete successfully in the market place and in graduate school.

TBIs' Contribution to the Number of Black College Graduates

The information we reviewed and the data in our study indicate that Black colleges are critical to the production of qualified Black baccalaureate candidates. Their graduate numbers (40% of all Black baccalaureate recipients) are a greater proportion of the Black college pool than their enrollments would suggest (17% of Black undergraduates). TBIs' retention rate of Black students is unique. Additionally, while only enrolling a small proportion of Black undergraduates nationally, they are essential to the education of Black youth in the South.

TBIs' Contribution of Black Baccalaureates with Particular Skills

Some have felt that TBI curricula are narrow and focus on education to the exclusion of other disciplines, particularly math and science. Our data indicate that in general the choice of major for Black undergraduates at TBIs is not significantly different from Black and white undergraduates at predominantly white schools. While Blacks generally are underrepresented in

math and science, students at TBIs enroll in science programs at the same rate as Blacks in majority schools. Furthermore, TBI graduates are a significant portion of the minority medical applicant pool.

Although education is a popular field of study for Black students, and Black colleges in the past were the major suppliers of teachers to formerly segregated Black schools, the RCG data indicate students at TBIs were not more likely than Black students on white campuses to choose an education major. The NLS data, however, show teaching the most commonly chosen major of Black students, and indicate this preference is greater for Black students at TBIs than for those attending majority schools. When we look at employment we see that the TBI graduate is more likely than his counterpart at predominantly white schools to be teaching.

TBI Baccalaureates' Participation in Graduate and Professional Training

Our data indicate that Black graduates of TBIs are an important part of the graduate and professional school pool, and that most of them go on to study at predominantly white universities. A large portion of all Black graduates are confident that their undergraduate training equipped them for further study, but TBI graduates are slightly less sure (79% versus 84% for Black majority school graduates). Nonetheless, the full-time participation rate in graduate school was the same for all Black graduates. Part-time attendance was greater for Black graduates of white colleges than for TBI alumni.

Employment of TBI Graduates

Here again we find that TBI baccalaureates are competitive with other college graduates. While there were some differences, most notably, TBI

graduates were paid a bit less and tended to work in government more, overall employment rates and types of jobs were similar for the two groups. Earning a degree at a Black college is not a deterrent to employment opportunities. The data in this study clearly support the role of Black colleges and universities in enhancing opportunities for Black Americans.

Bibliography

Anderson, Ernest F. and Hrabowski, Freeman. "Graduate School Success of Black Students from White Colleges and Black Colleges," Journal of Higher Education, Vol. XLVII, No. 3 May/June, 1977.

Astin, Alexander. "Measurement and Determinants of the Outputs of Higher Education," in Does College Matter? ed. by L.C. Solomon and P. J. Taubman. New York: Academic Press, 1973.

_____. Preventing Students From Dropping Out. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1975.

_____. Minorities in American Higher Education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1982.

Baxter, Felix B. "The Affirmative Duty to Desegregate Institutions of Higher Education -- Defining the Role of the Traditionally Black College," Journal of Law and Education, Vol. 11, No. 1., January 1982.

Brazziel, William and Marian. "Recent College and University Enrollment Patterns of Black Students in States Affected by Adam-Califano Litigation," Executive Summary of Research Completed Under a Grant from the Southern Regional Education Foundation, 1980.

Burkheimer, Graham and Novak, Thomas. "A Capsule Description of Young Adults Seven and One-Half Years After High School," Research Triangle Park, N.C.: Center for Educational Research and Evaluation, 1981.

Clark, Kenneth B. "Higher Education for Negroes: Challenges and Prospects," Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 36, Summer 1967, 196-203.

General Accounting Office. The Federal Program to Strengthen Developing Institutions Lacks Direction. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1979.

Graduate Record Examination Board. Minority Participation in Graduate Education. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, March 1983. Unpublished draft report prepared for Minority Research Subcommittee of the Graduate Record Examination Board.

Haynes, Leonard III. A Critical Examination of the Adams Case: A Source Book. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Services to Education, 1978.

_____. "The Adams Mandate: Is It a Blueprint for Equal Educational Opportunity?" Phi Delta Kappan, Vol 1. April 1980, 541-42.

Jencks, Christopher and Reisman, David. The Academic Revolution. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co. Inc. 1968.

Johnson, Rhoda B. "Factors Related to the Postbaccalaureate Careers of Selected Four-Year Institutions in Alabama." Atlanta, Georgia: Southern Education Foundation, May 1982. Xerox copy.

Bibliography continued

Marcus, Laurence R. "The Adams Case: A Hollow Victory?" Peabody Journal of Education, October 1981.

Metz, A.A. and Hammer, C. "Labor Force Status of Recent College Graduates" Washington, D. C.: National Center fo. Education Statistics, 1981.

Miller, Carroll L. "Higher Education for Black Americans: Problems and Issues." Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 50, No. 3, 1982.

National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities. Black Colleges and Universities: An Essential Component of a Diverse System of Higher Education. Washington, D. C.: NACBHE, September 1979.

_____. Still a Lifeline: the Status of Historically Black Colleges and Universities. Washington, D. C.: NACBHE, June 1980.

_____. A Losing Battle: the Decline in Black Participation in Graduate and Professional Education. Washington, D. C: NACBHE, October 1980.

National Center for Education Statistics, The Condition of Education. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1980.

St. John, Edward. Public Policy and College Management: Title III of the Higher Education Act. New York: Praeger, 1981.

Thomas, G. E., McPortland, J. M. and Gottredson, D.C. "Desegregation and Black Student Higher Educational Access." In Black Students In Higher Education: Conditions and Experiences in the 1970's. Edited by G. E. Thomas. Westport, Conn: Greenwood, 1981.

Tollett, Kenneth. "Black Institutions of Higher Learning: Inadvertent Victims or Necessary Sacrifices?" The Black Law Journal, Vol. III, 1974.

Turner, W. H. and Michael, J. A. "Traditionally Black Institutions of Higher Education: Their Identification and Selected Characteristics," USDHEW, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

U. S. House of Representatives, House Report 89-621. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1965.

_____. Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Postsecondary Education and Labor, 96th Congress, 1st Session. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1979.

Willie, Charles V. "Black Colleges Redefined," Change, October 1979.

Willie, Charles V. and Hedgepeth, Chester M., Jr. "Educational Goals of Black Colleges," Journal of Higher Education, Vol. 50, No. 1, 1979.

APPENDIX A

The Adams Case

The case of Adams v. Richardson,[1] filed by the NAACP Legal Defense Fund (LDF) in October 1970, alleged that HEW was not enforcing Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act in those states operating dual systems of higher education, has important ramifications for the present and future role of public Black colleges. The remedies arising from the case are not only an attempt to make the public higher educational system more accessible to Blacks, but in effect constitute a fundamental reordering of public higher education in the states affected.[2] Because of its consequences for public Black colleges, the case has caused divisiveness among Black educators. For the first time ever, a major group of Black educators, represented by the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education (NAFEO), broke with the NAACP. The case has a long and arduous history, the highlights of which are summarized in the following pages.

Legal History

In October 1970, the Legal Defense Fund of the NAACP, filed a class action suit against HEW because the agency was not enforcing Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act in those states operating dual systems of higher education. Title VI prohibits federal support to public educational

---

[1]The original suit, known as Adams v. Richardson, was a class action omnibus suit filed against HEW by attorneys for the NAACP attacking federal support of segregated public schools and colleges. Elliot T. Richardson, Secretary of HEW and Stanley Pottinger, Director of the Office for Civil Rights (OCR) were cited because they exercised HEW's responsibility for enforcement of Title VI. Kenneth R. Adams, a student from Brandon, Mississippi was first on the alphabetical list of plaintiffs in the suit, hence the legal title of the suit Adams v. Richardson, 351 F. Supp. 636 (D.D.C. 1972).

[2]Laurence R. Marcus, "The Adams Case: A Hollow Victory?" Peabody Journal of Education, (October 1981), p. 38.

institutions that practice segregation and discrimination. The ten states alleged to be in violation were Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. These states were cited not because they were the only ones known to be in violation, but because HEW had completed field investigations in those states the previous year and found they were operating dual systems of higher education.[1] The Legal Defense Fund requested that HEW obtain adequate desegregation plans from the states or terminate federal funds to those systems practicing racial discrimination and segregation. In February 1973, Judge Pratt found that HEW had failed in its responsibilities and ordered the agency to obtain plans from the states. HEW appealed the decision, which was heard in April 1973 in the U. S. Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia.

The National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education filed an amicus curiae brief, which outlined its objections to the Legal Defense Fund case and requested dismissal of the suit. Its position was that Black colleges had always been open to all races and therefore should not bear the full burden of any desegregation effort. NAFEO contended that states had a right to establish and maintain special purpose institutions and that the unitary system proposed by the Legal Defense Fund threatened the exercise of this perogative. The issue at stake in the Adams case was not equal educational opportunity but achieving equality of educational attainment. To do this, NAFEO maintained, required the existence and enhancement of public Black colleges.[2]

---

[1] Leonard L. Haynes III, A Critical Examination of the Adams Case: A Source Book (Washington, D.C.: Institute for Services to Education, 1978), p. II-16.

[2] Ibid. p. III-5.

In June 1973, the appeals court concurred with the lower court ruling, but added that any desegregation plans must take into account the special problems of minority students and Black colleges. HEW then began to develop criteria for states to use in developing plans. All states except Louisiana filed plans by June 1974. All plans filed, except Mississippi, were accepted by the Office for Civil Rights.

The Legal Defense Fund found the plans unacceptable, and in August 1975 filed a motion for further relief, recommending criteria to be included in the state plans. NAFEO filed a brief opposing LDF's motion for further relief.

In January 1977, Judge Pratt granted LDF's motion with regard to six states (Arkansas, Virginia, Georgia, Oklahoma, Florida, and North Carolina), and in a supplemental order issued in April 1977 required HEW to prepare guidelines for states to follow in submitting their plans. HEW was required to seek assistance from LDF and representatives of Black colleges in developing the plans.

At the center of the plans was the recognition that desegregation of public higher education must take place on a statewide basis. States were required to review all institutional programs and end unnecessary duplication. Plans were to focus on desegregation of student enrollments, desegregation of faculty, administrative staff and nonacademic personnel, and governing boards and to include a monitoring process to assure compliance. The plans were also to include goals for enhancing Black institutions in terms of both facilities and programs. Some high demand programs were to be placed on Black campuses to attract students for reasons other than race. No longer could the mission of the Black institution be based on race. All plans were to be submitted and approved by HEW

by January 1978, with implementation of the plans by 1983. The court also ordered HEW to undertake investigations in those states with a history of de jure desegregation. Five additional states (Kentucky, Texas, Delaware, Missouri, West Virginia), often referred to as "second-tier Adams" states, were found not in compliance with Adams guidelines.

In May 1982, a motion for further relief was filed in the district courts alleging that defendants were ignoring the requirements, both in failing to desegregate public colleges and in failing to enhance Black colleges.

This 1982 motion was denied without prejudice, but in December a renewed motion was filed and an Order handed down in March 1983 granting plaintiffs' request. The Order requires that:

- states that had submitted desegregation plans that expire in 1982-83 (Arkansas, Georgia, Oklahoma, Florida, the community college system of North Carolina, and Virginia[1]) submit revised plans by June 30, 1983 with specific measures to assure that goals set forth in the 1978 plans are met by fall 1985, and show substantial progress by the 1983-84 academic year.

- within 120 days of the Order, OCR must begin formal proceedings against those states that have not submitted acceptable plans (Pennsylvania, Texas, and Kentucky) by that date.

- plans accepted by OCR from West Virginia, Missouri, and Delaware comply with requirements of the law.[2]

To date the Department of Education has not appealed the decision.

---

[1]Virginia's plan was provisionally approved, and the state was given until 1985-86 to achieve desegregation goals. However, Virginia must show reasonable progress by 1983-84 in achieving these goals.

[2]Adams v. Bell, No. 3095-70 (U.D.D.C. 1983).

Remedies

The remedies arising from the Adams case focus on both students and on institutions in an attempt to eliminate dual systems of higher education. The aspects of the case as they affect students, particularly increases in minority participation, have generally enjoyed support. The guidelines require states to develop plans that incorporate the following goals and to monitor progress toward their attainment. Specifically states must:

- o assure that the proportion of Black high school graduates in the the state who enter two and four-year undergraduate public higher education institutions is equal to the proportion of white high school graduates in the state who enter those institutions;
- o increase the proportion of Black students (by a specified amount) in traditionally white four-year institutions; and reduce the disparity in the proportion of white and Black high school graduates who enter four-year and upper division public education institutions;
- o increase the proportion of Black state residents who graduate from undergraduate institutions in the state system and enter graduate study or professional school in the state system to a level equal to white students;
- o increase the total proportion of white students attending traditionally Black institutions.[1]

There have been few objections to the remedies requiring states to increase minority participation in public higher education. Haynes objections center on the unrealistic time requirements and the fact that the criteria do not require states to go far enough. Under the plans, no state is required to increase minority participation by more than 150% above the admissions rate for the preceeding year, an increase that he believes is too small given the small base. He contends there is a need for stronger action

---

[1]Haynes, op. cit.,pp. IV-6-98.

to increase the size of the pool.[1] The Court's remedies do recognize the failure of states to provide equal educational opportunity and the resulting severe shortages of trained minority professionals.

The effect of the remedies in the Adams case on institutions has been a more controversial and complex aspect of the case. The case provided the opportunity for a discussion of the role of the Black college, which had not figured in major educational decisions in the past[2] but created a dispute within the Black community. Although the Adams remedies require enhancement of Black colleges and their inclusion as an integral part of a unitary statewide system, some believed this effort at assimilation to be inconsistent with other federal policies such as Title III and executive orders which sought to strengthen Black colleges. Baxter[3] maintains that the judicial relief granted under Adams not only dissipates the role of the Black college, but does nothing to clarify its place in the higher education system. The remedies calling for enhancement of the Black colleges on the one hand and assimilation on the other are indeed contradictory. If the mission of each institution within the system must be defined on a basis other than race, what appropriate role is the TBI to serve?

While enhancement of programs at Black institutions is desirable, there is a clear lack of overall support for implementing this policy. In a 1981 survey of Black college presidents, Marcus found substantially few

---

[1]Leonard Haynes III, "The Adams Mandate: Is It A Blueprint for Equal Educational Opportunity?" Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 61 (April 1980), pp. 541-2.

[2]Haynes, op. cit., 1978.

[3]Felix V. Baxter, "The Affirmative Duty to Desegregate Institutions of Higher Education -- Defining the Role of the Traditionally Black College," Journal of Law and Education, Vol. 11, No. 1, (January 1982).

presidents supporting the Pratt decision. The presidents of Black colleges believed they should remain presidents of Black colleges. Furthermore, no president wants to see valued programs removed from his/her campus or to be bypassed when funds are distributed.[1] The arguments of NAFEO, the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, and other Black educators attesting to the importance of the maintenance of the Black colleges add to the controversy surrounding institutional remedies in desegregating higher education.

Baxter emphasizes major differences between desegregation of higher education and of elementary and secondary education. The elimination of one-race schools at the elementary and secondary level was sought because of the injury the schools inflicted upon students and their sense of selfesteem. But this argument, he contends, is not appropriate at the level of higher education. First, to many Black Americans, Black colleges are a source of pride and a center for Black culture. Furthermore, Blacks are not cut off from white institutions; they can freely choose where to go to college.[2]

Although in its testimony of the reauthorization of Title III, the Administration gave recognition to the problem:

> ...there is a general absence of coordination between the department's civil rights enforcement programs and its grantmaking programs.
>
> Title III is especially important to the desegregation of state systems of higher education because it is institution-based and because many of the institutions subject to state desegregation plans are eligible for funds under this title. The way these institutions develop is crucial to the successful implementation of the desegregation plans.

---

[1]Marcus, op. cit., pp. 38-41.

[2]Baxter, op. cit., pp. 35-38.

> Within the last two years, we have made attempts to coordinate the administration of the Title III program with our civil rights objectives. The new Title III regulations contain a prohibition on funding for any program that will perpetuate segregation in a state that has a history of racial segregation in higher education.[1]

Its statement contained no policy clarification on the role of the Black colleges and universities. Thus from federal policies, two contradictory trends toward Black colleges have emerged: one which emphasizes their assimilation into the state higher education systems; the other, based on federal executive initiatives to increase federal funds to Black colleges and the Title III program supports the enhancement and preservation of Black colleges. Although the role of the TBI has become an important issue in public policy affecting Black colleges, no clear policy directive has emerged.

---

[1] U. S. House of Representatives, Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Postsecondary Education and Labor, 96th Congress, 1st Session (Washington, DC.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979), pp. 371-2.

APPENDIX B

Title III of the Higher Education Act

The issues raised in the legislative deliberations on the Developing Institutions Program (Title III of the Higher Education Act of 1965) strike at the core of the debate concerning the role of the historically Black institution in the system of higher education. Fundamental questions underlying the debate center on the issue of the viability of the TBI and what constitutes a developing institution.

- Should the Title III program be a developmental program, or is it an entitlement for certain categories of institutions because of their history and development?
- As greater numbers and proportions of Black students matriculate at predominantly white institutions, is the role of TBIs sufficient to merit continued federal support?

Although Title III has never been exclusively a Black college program, it has been an important source of funding for the TBIs and its future will have a direct impact on those colleges and universities. Title III is relatively small compared to many federal education programs, particularly at the elementary and secondary level, but with appropriations of $130 million for 1983 it represents the largest federal program of direct aid to higher education institutions.

The Strengthening Developing Institutions Program of 1965 was part of President Johnson's education initiatives. The program was designed to strengthen the academic quality of those institutions which were outside the mainstream of higher education, but which showed the desire and potential to make a substantial contribution to the higher education resources of the nation. Although the definition of what constitutes a "developing institution" has been the subject of debate since the inception of the program, the

ensuing legislation was aimed at small colleges, with limited financial support and chronic inadequacies in their facilities and course offerings.[1] In the law Congress gave a broad definition to developing institutions, to include those institutions of higher education which are making a reasonable effort to improve the quality of their teaching and administrative staffs and their student services and which for financial or other reasons are struggling for survival and isolated from the main currents of academic life.[2] Although not mentioned specifically, the traditionally Black institutions clearly fit this description. The Commissioner of Education was to develop more specific eligibility criteria for the awarding of funds.

The purpose of Title III was to award grants for various activities which would strengthen the institution in curricular, administrative, and/or student services areas. Such projects included: cooperative arrangements with developed institutions for the exchange of faculty or students; faculty and administrative improvement programs; new curricula; cooperative education programs; and sharing of facilities. In addition, National Teaching Fellowships were established for graduate students and junior faculty members at developed schools who agreed to teach at developing institutions for periods of up to two years. These students and faculty were usually hired to replace faculty who had been given release time to further their education. The Higher Education Amendments of 1968 added to the program Professor Emeritus Grants to allow professors retired from developed institutions to continue their teaching careers at developing institutions. Overall, the program allowed great flexibility in how the funds were used.

---

[1]U. S. House of Representatives, House Report 89-621 (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1975).

[2]P.L. 89-329.

In FY 1974, the Office of Education divided the program into the Basic and Advanced Institutional Development Programs. The Advanced Program was to provide special assistance through very large grants, usually $1 to $3 million over a three to five year period, to those institutions which demonstrated a strong potential for entering the mainstream of higher education. Funds could be used for a wide range of curriculum and administrative functions. Approximately half of the funds were used for the advanced program. The Basic program continued toward smaller grants for cooperative arrangements, National Teaching Fellowships and Professor Emeritus Grants to improve the quality of weak institutions. Program guidelines allowed funds to pay for a portion of the costs of planning, developing and implementing cooperative arrangements with other institutions in the areas of curriculum development, faculty development, administrative improvement and student services. In FY 1980 the two programs were combined into a single program and eligibility criteria were revised.

Originally, eligibility for awards was based on a number of quantitative and qualitative factors. Quantitative factors included: full-time equivalent (FTE) enrollment; percent of faculty with doctorates or master's (for two-year institutions); average salary of professors; average salary of instructors; percent of students from low income families; total expenditures for educational and general purposes; total volumes in library; and, total educational and general expenditures per full-time equivalent student. Qualitative factors included: retention rate; rate of entrance into graduate school; quality of an institution's administrative and professional personnel; and, financial vitality of the institution.

Appropriations for the Title III program grew from $5 million in FY 1966 to $110 million in FY 1975, when the first major evaluation of the program was conducted by GAO. FY 1983 appropriations are approximately $130 million, with a FY 1984 request of $130 million.

In 1975, GAO released its first report on Title III, indicating major problems in management and administration of the program, and asserting there were insufficient criteria to determine what constitutes a "developing institution."[1] A second study by GAO undertaken in 1978 indicated that the major problems cited in the first study still existed. GAO found inconsistencies in awarding funds and indications of fraud and abuse by some schools. Additionally, GAO found that no progress had been made toward clarifying the criteria for a developing institution or in determining if goals of the program had been met. The report indicated that the Office of Education (OE), now Department of Education, should:

- o identify those factors which caused an institution to be considered developing or outside the mainstream of higher education, and
- o fund activities designated to uplift the institution in those needed areas.[2]

The need for clearer criteria was a major criticism of the program. Despite the twelve years of program operation, the Office of Education had not established a working definition of "developing institution." Because of the large number of institutions which were deemed eligible for Title

---

[1]General Accounting Office, The Federal Program to Strengthen Developing Institutions Lacks Direction (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979), p. 8.

[2]Ibid.

III, some clearer criteria for eligibility and proposal review were needed. Requests for funds exceeded available funds by a four to one margin. Furthermore, lack f criteria and agreed-upon objectives precluded evaluating the program. No one could determine if the goals of the program had been met.[1]

From its inception there was a basic contradiction in the program, which has contributed to the ambiguities of goals and difficulty in defining developing institution. Arguments used to justify Title III as a program to assist colleges centered on the belief that with federal aid, these institutions could experience an "up and out" phenomenon as they developed stronger programs. On the other hand, the criteria developed have encouraged colleges to maintain levels of activity to insure continued eligibility for the program. Throughout its history, the same institutions have remained eligible for Title III.[2]

In November 1978, in response to the draft GAO report, and prior to the Congressional hearings on the Higher Education Amendments of 1980, OE developed regulations changing eligibility criteria. The new regulations established two measures to determine status as a developing institution:

- o Basic opportunity grants per FTE, and
- o Education and general expenditures per FTE.

The new criteria and ensuing criticisms about the program met with strong resistance from education lobby groups and OE delayed their implementation.

---

[1] Ibid., p. 16.

[2] Edward St. John, Public Policy and College Management: Title III of Higher Education Act (New York: Praeger, 1981), p. 22.

However, these new criteria did reflect an attempt to clarify the purpose of the program and a recognition of changes that had taken place in the educational environment since 1965. When Title III was created, higher education was experiencing a period of rapid growth and institutions enjoyed widespread public and political support. The program which grew out of this background emphasized growth and development. But as enrollments began to decline in the 1970s and institutions no longer enjoyed the public confidence they once had, this growth orientation changed. The criteria developed in 1978 reflected a move away from growth.[1] The issue of development and graduation from the program became less central. The term developing institution was to reflect a certain type of institution and not a particular stage of growth.

These criteria also indicated that the program should be directed toward those institutions which serve low income and minority students, not necessarily traditionally Black institutions. In the Congressional hearings which took place in the Spring and Fall of 1979, these issues were central to the debate. Since Congress had never defined developing institution and the legislative intent was not specific on the definition there was room for controversy.

> Chairman Ford: No one is willing to tell us how to define developing institutions, but many are willing to recommend funding at a higher level. I have been hearing ever since 1965 that something that is not written into the law and something that was not written in President Johnson's message when he transmitted the bill to us for action, and something that has never been written into the regulations does, in fact, direct that something like the 49 percent set-aside for "traditionally black colleges" was understood by someone.[2]

---

[1]St. John, op. cit., p. 27.

[2]U.S. House of Representatives, Hearings Before the Subcommittee on Postsecondary Education and Labor, 96th Congress, 1st Session (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979), p. 405.

Al Moye, Deputy Commissioner for Higher and Continuing Education, testified that OE staff had examined 51 different variables and found two that were the most reliable indicators of struggling institutions. These are institutions that 1) serve large numbers of low income and minority students and 2) have low educational and general expenditures per FTE. These institutions spend large sums on students who need remedial work and have less successful alumni to donate to the schools.[1]

Although no one questioned the unique contribution made by traditionally Black institutions, some believed Title III was most appropriately directed at colleges serving large numbers of low income and minority students, and not necessarily traditionally Black institutions. The newly developed criteria reflected a clearer definition for Title III institutions, but GAO indicated this was still an inadequate interpretation of the legislation.[2]

Historically, it has been the traditionally Black institutions which served these students, but with the proliferation of two-year colleges and opening of doors at majority institutions, Black students are more widely dispersed. Although there are larger numbers of Black students at two-year colleges than at TBIs, many educators believe that the traditionally Black institutions are more effective in working with Black students than are majority institutions, and therefore TBIs should be a priority group. The National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, among other groups, argued that Title III should be directed at Black colleges, particularly in light of the declining available resources. However, the new criteria were not intended to penalize Black colleges. To

---

[1] Ibid., pp. 374-381.

[2] General Accounting Office, op. cit., p. 31.

the contrary, Black colleges could benefit, since it was assumed that these institutions had higher percentages of low income and minority students than some of the more recent recipients of Title III.[1]

In November 1979, closely following the Senate reauthorization hearings on Title III, the Senate Subcommittee on Limitations of Contracted and Delegated Authority of the Senate Committee on the Judiciary, under the Chairmanship of Senator Baucus, conducted hearings on the allegations of mismanagement and abuse of Title III funds. The subcommittee found evidence of the misuse of funds by grantees, conflict of interest and lack of adequate monitoring of funds awarded to grantees. The publicity surrounding the uncovering of fraud, abuse and mismanagement raised questions about the future of the program. While most individuals agreed on the importance of the traditionally Black institutions and their role in American higher education, there was controversy over maintaining programs of questionable quality in an era of limited funds and declining enrollments.

Title III maintains the criteria established by OE in 1978, but demands for funds are higher than ever, with many institutions applying for the first time. The debate over federal support to traditionally Black institutions continues as overall federal aid to education declines. Many believe set-asides for TBIs are necessary to assure continued support. Questions regarding the effectiveness of the program are still unanswerable due to the program's vagueness in definitions and regulations and the absence of theory about how colleges develop.[2]

---

[1]S. John, op cit., 28-29.

[2]Ibid., p. 36.

APPENDIX C

Explanation of Sampling Procedures

Survey of Recent College Graduates

The sample was selected in two stages. First a representative sample of 297 institutions was chosen. The institutions were stratified by: percent of education graduates (high, medium, low); public/private governance and geographic region. Traditionally Black institutions were placed in a separate category to assure adequate sample size. Thirty traditionally Black institutions were sampled and 26 responded. The overall institutional response rate in the first stage was 95%.

In the second stage of the process 11,729 graduates from selected institutions were sampled. Graduates were stratified by major field, and then a random sample was taken within each major, with different sampling rates for the various majors, so that sampling errors for different majors vary. Within a field, all graduates had the same probability of selection. There was a follow-up survey to increase the response rate for all graduates, and two follow-up surveys at TBIs because they had a considerably lower response rate. After the follow-up surveys, there were 7,867 completed cases providing a 72% response rate for individuals.[1]

National Longitudinal Study Survey

The National Longitudinal Study, conducted by Educational Testing Service and Research Triangle Institute for National Center for Education Statistics, surveyed high school seniors in spring 1972 on a range of

---

[1]A. A. Metz and C. Hammer, "Labor Force Status of Recent College Graduates" (Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics, 1981), pp. 19-21.

variables relating to high school experiences, background, opinions, attitudes and plans for the future. The purpose of the study was to examine vocational activities, plans, aspirations and attitudes of young adults after they leave high school and relate this to education and personal characteristics. Four major followup surveys have been conducted from October through April or May of the years 1973-74, 1974-75, 1976-77, and 1979-80. The survey design consists of a national stratified random sample of high schools with a maximum of 18 students from the class of 1972 from each high school. The final sample consists of 1,318 high schools and 23,451 former high school seniors from those schools.[1]

By October 1979, at the time of the fourth follow-up, approximately one-fourth of the class of 1972 had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher. By this time most students who entered postsecondary education immediately after high school and maintained continuous enrollment would have had ample time to complete undergraduate study under all but very unusual, part-time course loads.[2]

Since our primary concern is with outcomes, we were interested in controlling for any differences in ability (student input) which might exist. Unlike the NCES data, the NLS survey contains data on ability, high school grades, socioeconomic status, and a range of other variables related to ability. In order to test for differences in ability between TBI graduates and Black graduates of majority institutions, we computed a t-test on the composite achievement score which we had for 263 students in our

---

[1]Graham J. Burkheimer and Thomas P. Novak, "A Capsule Description of Young Adults Seven and One-Half Years After High School," (Research Triangle Park, NC: Center for Educational Research and Evaluation, 1981), p.1.

[2] Ibid., p. 4.

sample (153 Black graduates of predominantly white institutions and 110 graduates of TBIs). We found no significant difference between the two groups.

To assure that the group for which we had the composite score was representative of the entire Black graduate sample, we compared the 263 respondents who had the composite score with the other 150 respondents in our sample on several variables: sex, mother's education, and field of study. There were no significant differences, so we felt confident in using the entire sample of Black graduates in our analysis.

APPENDIX D

Major Fields of Study

Education

Humanities (letters, foreign language, fine and applied arts, journalism and communications)

Social Science (anthropology, archaeology, economics, history, geography, political science and government, sociology, criminology, international relations, Afro-American studies, American-Indian cultural studies, Mexican-American studies, urban studies, demography, other social science)

Business and Management

Psychology

Engineering

Biological Science (biological fields, premedical, predentistry, and preveterinary medicine)

Health Professions (hospital and health care administration, nursing, allied health, dental specialties, medical specialties, occupational therapy, optometry, pharmacy, physical therapy, dental hygiene, public health, medical librarianship, podiatry, biomedical communication, veterinary medicine specialties, speech pathology and audiology, chiropractic, clinical social work, medical technologies, dental technologies, radiologic technologies, rehabilitation, expressive therapies)

Physical Science

Mathematics (mathematics and statistics)

All other fields (area studies, agriculture, public affairs, library science, theology, home economics, interdisciplinary studies)